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REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

BATTLES OF TRENTON AND PRINCETON.

BY JOHN CLARK RIDPATH.

THE early winter of 1776 was the midnight of the patriot cause. After the capture of New York by the British, it seemed that everything went to the enemy. Cornwallis crossed the Hudson and took Fort Lee. The capture of New York had already cost Washington about one-half of his army. With the remaining half, weak and dispirited, dwindling with every march, he made his toilsome way across New Jersey in a three weeks' retreat before a victorious and powerful foe. When he reached the Delaware, December 2, his army was reduced to fewer than twenty-five hundred men. The enlistment of many of these was expiring. Lord Howe's proclamation to the people of New Jersey had produced disaffection in the hearts of not a few, and the militiamen sought every excuse to abandon the service.

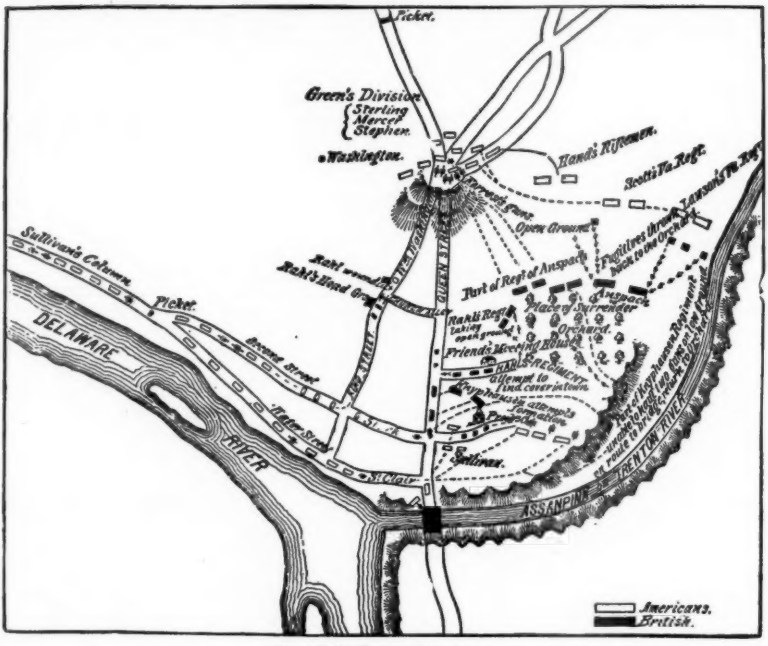
It was precisely such emergencies as this that brought out the greatness of Washington's character. He had a nature to endure and a will to withstand all manner of adversity. His mind rose triumphant and his face shone with the grandeur that was in him. On reaching the Delaware, at Trenton, he seized all the boats and transports, not only at that place, but at the different ferries for miles up and down the river. With him there was no thought of abandoning the cause, but even in this darkest hour he meditated how he might turn upon the enemy and by winning some signal success, arouse the spirits of his countrymen.

When the rear guard of the American army crossed the river the van of the British took possession of Trenton. All New Jersey was lost, and even the right bank of the Delaware was precariously held by a few Continentals and broken regiments of militia whose terms of service had not yet quite expired. Congress, foreseeing the probable capture of Philadelphia, adjourned from that city, and re-assembled at Baltimore. There was imminent danger that the invasion of the enemy would be continued, that the British would effect a crossing of the river, that the Continental capital would be taken and the patriot cause extinguished with the capture of Washington and his army.

It was necessary, however, for the British to occupy and hold as much as they had taken. The towns of New Jersey must be garrisoned, and a long line of outposts guarded against the incursions of the patriot militia. Besides, midwinter was at hand, and Cornwallis was willing to go into winter quarters till the spring campaign. To this he confidently looked forward as the time when he should easily put down whatever remained of the American rebellion.

Among the posts held by the enemy on the left bank of the Delaware, the most important was Trenton. This place was occupied by the regiments of Anspach,* Knyphausen, and Rahl, making an aggregate of fifteen hundred and fifty men, with six pieces of artillery. Rahl established his winter quarters, made arrangements for the comfort of his men, fixed his picket lines, but deemed

*[Ans'päch. German *ch*.]—[Knip'how-zen].



Plan of the Battle of Trenton.

it entirely unnecessary to establish field works or other measures of defense.

The first twenty days of December, 1776, were occupied by Washington with measures, first of all, for the security of his army and Philadelphia, and after that with schemes for obtaining some advantages over the powerful and confident enemy. He scanned the horizon of New Jersey with an ever watchful eye. He perceived the situation at Trenton, and by the 20th of the month his ambition had risen to the hope of snatching that place from the foe. To this end he began to mature his plans, and by December 23 was ready to issue orders for an advance upon the enemy. On that day he gave out the countersign of "Victory or Death." The spirits of the patriot officers rose with the occasion, and the confidence of the commander-in-chief was shared by all who were informed of his purposes.

As for the British, they were lulled into perfect repose. With the 20th of the month, cold weather had come, and the Delaware began to freeze. The British commanders were at perfect ease. Cornwallis obtained a leave of absence, left New Jersey under command of General Grant, and prepared to return to England. The British posts along the Delaware stretched from Trenton to Burlington; but the main body was concentrated at the former place.

The plan of Washington was to take advantage of the Christmas holiday, which he knew would bring rioting and incaution to the camp of the enemy. The division of the British army occupying Trenton was composed of those hated Hessians who had been hired by the British Ministry to make war on the Americans. They it was whom the sarcastic Frederick the Great had charged a certain rate per head for transportation across his kingdom, saying, in answer to the request of his cousin George for such privilege, that that was the rate which he charged for the transportation of *live stock* across his country. But the Hessians were nevertheless capital soldiers. They were well disciplined, well equipped, and brave. But these facts did not make them the less hateful to patriotism, and centuries of time will not remove from the mind and heart of the American people the odium which attaches to the name of "Hessian."

Washington's design was bold in the last degree. He would cross the Delaware in per-

son at the head of the remnant of his best soldiers and fall upon the enemy at Trenton. He would surprise them and trust to fortune and to Providence for the issue. He accordingly gave orders to his several subordinate commanders to make demonstrations at their respective places along the river. The first division under Colonel John Cadwalader was to cross the Delaware at Bristol, and attack the British left wing at Burlington. A second brigade, commanded by General James Ewing, was to cross a little below Trenton, in order to intercept the possible retreat of the enemy. General Putnam, commandant* of Philadelphia, was directed to make demonstrations from his position against the British on the other side. The main expedition was undertaken by the commander-in-chief.

With a division of twenty-four hundred men, under the immediate command of Greene and Sullivan, Washington prepared to cross the Delaware nine miles above Trenton, at a place then known as McConkey's Ferry, now called Taylorsville. The evening of Christmas day was chosen for the daring adventure. "It was," says Rodney, "as severe a night as I ever saw. The frost was sharp, the current of the river difficult to stem, the ice increasing, the wind high, and at eleven it began to snow." The expedition, however, departed under the personal direction of Washington.

The river was reached at the ferry, and the memorable crossing undertaken. The scene has been commemorated in art and story. The Delaware, six hundred yards in width, was bankful of turbid water and floating ice. The current was deep and strong—the night dark, the wind tempestuous. Nothing but the resolute purpose of Washington prevented the failure of the enterprise. The other commanders who had been ordered to pass over and attack the British failed in their work. General Putnam threw a small body of troops across the river, but then recalled them, saying that he feared to expose the city to attack. Neither Cadwalader nor Ewing succeeded in the parts assigned to them. Only the division of Washington made a successful crossing of the Delaware, and such was the inclemency of the storm and the opposition of the floating ice, that the crossing was not effected until 3 o'clock in the morning. With great difficulty the six pieces of artillery were drawn ashore through the darkness and storm. Nevertheless, the American forces, once on the Jersey side, were arranged in two divisions, and the march of nine miles to Trenton undertaken.

The snow had meanwhile changed to sleet and hail, blowing out of the northeast. One of the divisions was under command of Sullivan, and was directed down the river road, with orders to enter the town in the lower part, next the As-san'pink, or Trenton River. The other division, led by Washington and Greene, marched by a route farther inland, so as to enter Trenton on the other side. Washington received presently a messenger from Sullivan, saying that the arms of his men were wet and frozen in the storm. "Tell your general," replied Washington, "the town must be taken. I am resolved to take it."

Washington Crossing the Delaware.

As rapidly as possible the two columns, one by the river route and the other by the Princeton road, bore down upon the unsuspecting enemy. Tradition has preserved many stories of the riotous manner in which the day and night of Christmas had been passed by the Hessians. There had been

*[Kom-man-dänt'. Commonly mispronounced.]

feasting and jubilee all day, and with the coming of the night the officers in their well-furnished quarters betook themselves to gaming and drink. The story goes that a Tory of New Jersey, discovering the movement of the Americans, carried a note of alarm to Colonel Rahl late at night. But that officer thrust the message into his pocket, saying, "Business to-morrow!"

The "business" came in a manner to astonish the enemies of American Independence. In the early morning of December 26, while the Hessians were still in their quarters or only beginning to stir, the two divisions of the American army entered the opposite sides of Trenton. The surprise was complete. The American movement was so well timed that only a few minutes elapsed between the arrival of Sullivan's and Washington's divisions. The attack was instantaneous. At 8 o'clock the American cannon, planted at the head of King and Queen Streets, burst forth in thunder tones, and the astonished Hessians sprang from their quarters. They attempted to form in line; but the effort was futile. Colonel Rahl was mortally wounded in the first moments of the engagement. Rapidly the two wings of the American army enveloped the town, and the Hessians found themselves between two fires. There was no alternative but surrender. Between forty and fifty of the enemy fell dead or wounded at the first discharges. Confusion prevailed in the Hessian camp, and then a cry for quarter. Some companies and stragglers of the enemy—principally the light-horse, nearly six hundred strong—made their escape up the right bank of the river; but the remainder threw down their arms.

Colonel Rahl's Headquarters.

Nearly one thousand of the dreaded foe were made prisoners of war. These included a lieutenant-colonel, a deputy adjutant-general, and about thirty other officers. Six bronze guns, four stands of colors, more than a thousand firearms, besides drums, blankets, accouterments, and supplies fell into the hands of the victorious Americans. In an incredibly short time the work was done, and the American commander had the indescribable gratification of marching away with his prisoners and trophies of battle. He must at once and by all means recross the Delaware and reach a position of safety. And before nightfall Washington, at the head of his victorious army, and bearing along his train of captives, succeeded in recrossing the river and was safe in his own headquarters. Nor should we fail to record the suffering from extreme cold and hard marching which fell upon the victors. Many were frozen, and some perished under the privations of the march.

But the effect was electrical. America had won a victory. The cautious Washington, whose name of "The American Fabius"* had been turned into a sneer by Toryism and jealousy, emerged suddenly into great fame. The confidence of his countrymen rose almost to the level of his own faith, and the war for independence had a new birth by victory.

The successful stroke at Trenton was only a part, however, of a series of movements which Washington contemplated for the recovery of all New Jersey from the enemy. As for the British, they were thoroughly alarmed by the sudden blow. The posts along the Delaware were abandoned, and the garrisons concentrated in the direction of Princeton and Brunswick. Lord Cornwallis found it necessary to postpone his visit to England, and to hasten back to the scene of conflict. What indeed should be thought of a vanquished and disorganized enemy who arose thus suddenly, as if from the earth, in midwinter, attacked the pursuer and beat him by both strategy and battle? Such a thing was against the principles and history of war!

As soon as West Jersey began to clear itself of the British, Washington again crossed the Delaware and took permanent post at Trenton. To this point he rallied his forces. New recruits came from all quarters at the news of the victory. Within a period of ten days the fortunes of the American cause seemed to have

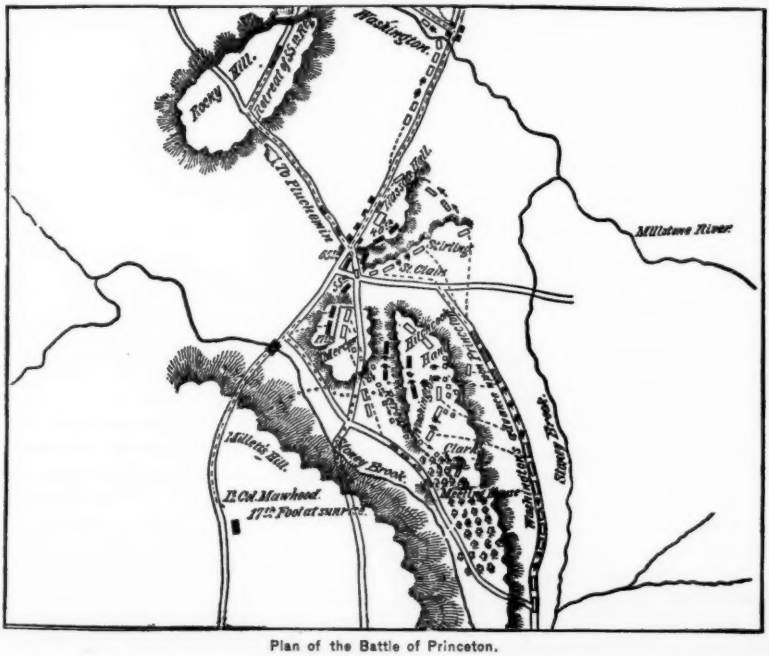
* His policy was like that of the Roman Fabius, who in the Second Punic War (218-201 B. C.) conquered Hannibal. Fabius was aware that with his undisciplined and disheartened troops he could not oppose with any hope of success a triumphing veteran like Hannibal; so he tired him and his forces by marches and countermarches, always avoiding battles.

suddenly revived from ruin into strength. Meanwhile, Cornwallis returned to Princeton, about thirteen miles distant, and to that place gathered in his outposts for battle. It was his purpose to return at once to the assault and again drive the Americans beyond the Delaware. But the purpose was greater than the accomplishment. Instead of the confidence which the British commander had felt but ten days previous, it was now a matter of doubt whether he should be able to hold his own against an enemy whom he had supposed to be crippled to death.

Meanwhile Washington, by January 1, 1777, gathered about him at Trenton an army of five thousand men. With this force well in hand, he contemplated an immediate movement on the British at Princeton. His letters of these days breathe confidence and encouragement not only to his officers and men, but to Congress and the whole country. Nevertheless, he knew well the hazard of open battle with the British regulars, and was vigilant and wary of exposing his forces to attack.

At the very time when Washington was planning his advance on Princeton, Cornwallis was making arrangements for an advance against Trenton. The British general indeed anticipated by a little the movement of his adversary. On the 2nd of January he moved out from Princeton, and bore down upon the Americans in great force. During the afternoon there was constant skirmishing between the two armies on the outskirts of Trenton, but nothing decisive. The enemy gained some ground and Washington, abandoning the town, took up a stronger position on the south side of the Assanpink. The British came on as far as the fords and bridges, but were met and driven back by the patriots. So the day closed.

The American situation, however, was extremely critical. Washington perceived that if the battle on the morrow should go against him, all would be lost. For he could not recross the Delaware with the victorious British close upon him. In the emergency, he conceived the bold design of retiring from his camp by night, and marching against Princeton, where he might strike that part of the British army which had been left behind. Such a movement would be attended with the utmost hazard, but if successful promised the happiest results. The American commander accordingly gave orders for the trial. At a council of war he told his officers of his purpose. The plan was to make a circuit to the east, pass the British left flank, and fall upon



Plan of the Battle of Princeton.

Princeton before Cornwallis could discover what was intended.

In accordance with this plan, the American baggage was at once removed to Burlington. As a measure of deception, the camp fires were kept brightly burning along the Assanpink. A guard was ordered out to rekindle them later in the night. This done, the army was silently put into motion and the march begun by a circuitous route to Princeton. In all particulars the plan was successfully carried out. The British sentries across the narrow river followed their beats till morning, discovering nothing; but with the light of day they perceived that the American camp had been deserted. Just at that moment, and as the alarm was sounded, the dull roar of Washington's guns, thirteen miles away at Princeton, was heard by the astonished Cornwallis, who perceived at a glance how completely he had been outgeneraled.

The American army had, in the mean time, made a successful march through the winter night and with the morning attacked the British regiments at Princeton. These were already in motion under orders from Cornwallis to join him in his expected battle with the Americans at Trenton. Washington's forces met the outmarching British in the edge of the village, and the battle was on. At the first shock a charge of the British against the American militia was successful, and General Mercer, one of the noblest patriots, attempting to rally his men, fell with a mortal wound. Fortunately the Pennsylvania reserves and regulars, under the immediate command of Washington were at hand, and the panic was stayed.

The courage of the American commander never shone with greater luster than at this critical hour. He spurred his horse among the fugitive militia, who rallied to his call. He rode between the hostile lines, and at one time drew rein within thirty yards of the enemy's column! There he stood. From both sides came a crash of musketry. Washington's aid-de-camp drew his hat over his eyes that he might not see his chieftain die. But the smoke arose, and the general was unhurt. The rally was completely successful. The British lines wavered, broke, and fled with a loss of four hundred and thirty men in killed, wounded, and missing. The American losses were comparatively trifling; but General Mercer could not well be spared by his countrymen.

The battles of Trenton and Princeton marked the reaction from the long-continued disasters of the summer and fall of 1776. After the battle of Long Island everything seemed to foretoken the early collapse of the American cause and the loss of independence. One blow followed another. The patriot army wasted away to a skeleton. Disaster brought discouragement, discontent, and gloom. Only a few tried spirits stood forth, tall and true, in the time of extremest trial. But with Trenton and Princeton the tide turned and rolled away. It was demonstrated that even in midwinter and under the unforeseen perils of attack the Americans could fight and win battles; that not even British and Hessian regulars were invincible; that the American general was superior to adversity and greater than his veteran antagonists; that other victories might be won; and that Independence might yet become something better than a name.

DOMESTIC AND SOCIAL LIFE OF THE COLONISTS.*

BY EDWARD EVERETT HALE.

III.

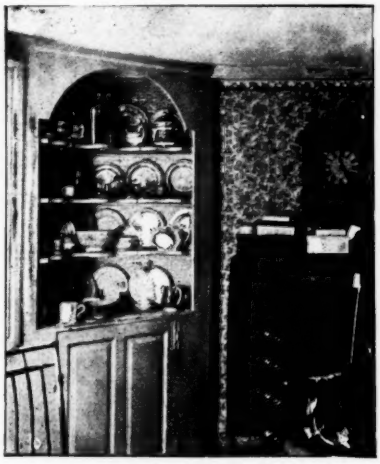
WE do not enough consider in America what we owe to peace. For one hundred and ten years this nation has been at peace, excepting only eight or nine years. In that time a certain steady habit of industry has been formed, of which the result is that we expect a steady advance in the prosperity of each man, each town, each state, and of the whole country. This comes because the United States is a great Peace Society, and the people of the United States are, almost without exception, always able to work in the improvement of their homes.

But nothing of this sort is true of the colonial days. For seventy-five years before 1763, England was at war nearly half the time with

*Special Course for C. L. S. C. Graduates.

France or with Spain ; generally with both together. The colonists in the thirteen provinces had to take part in those wars, for Spain held Florida on their south, France held Canada on their north, and, as the century passed on, France began to colonize the valley of the Mississippi on their west. Worse than this,—the colonists were in presence of Indian tribes, some of them of great strength. These tribes did not wait for European diplomacy to decide when they should attack settlers on their borders, though it is but fair to them to say that their worst atrocities were committed at the direction of allies or leaders who called themselves Christians.

This danger of war and the real presence of war made soldiers of the colonists from the very beginning. The history of the various encounters with French, Spanish, and Indian enemies belongs to another part of THE CHAUTAUQUAN studies for this year. But in this paper I shall try to give some idea of the military habits forced upon the people, and those which they found among their enemies, and of the effects on their social and domestic life.



A Colonial Cupboard.

The Indian races whom they met on their frontier were the Algonkins of New England, Pennsylvania, and Virginia, the Iroquois, or Five Nations, of western New York, and the Cherokees on the border of the Carolinas. Of these the Algonkins were those of lowest grade, as to civilization. The Iroquois lived in villages with some forms of government, and with considerable power for war, and the Cherokees, like the Choctaws and Creeks to the west and south of them, were even more civilized, populous, and strong.

The Algonkins, who are now best known to us by the tribes of Chippeways or Ojibwas of the Northwest, were known to the settlers as Tarranteens or Abenakis [ab-e-nä′keez], in Maine as Massachusetts Indians ; Mohegans, Pequots, Narragansetts, in other parts of New England ; and as Delawares where they met the colonists of Pennsylvania and Virginia. When the country was settled, they were hardly passing from what is called "the stone age." That is to say, they still used weapons of stone, and were only feeling their way toward the manufacture and use of copper and other metals. In the Northwest, however, native copper already had been found, and, in rough manufacture, it appeared in the ornaments and weapons of the Indians of those regions.

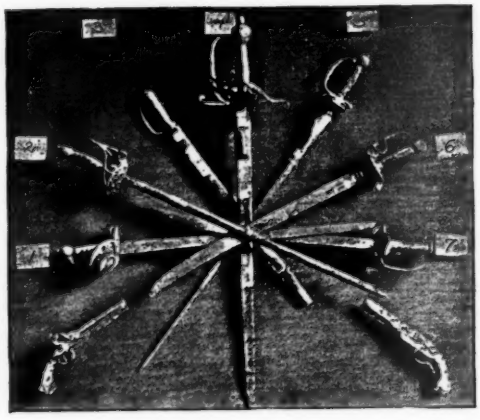
The flint arrow-head made by the Indians for warfare is familiar throughout America. Some special places where this necessary tool was manufactured in large quantities have been found. But it did not need much apparatus to make an arrow-head, and whoever had a good bit of quartz-rock, or of flint, had the material at hand. Some of our living students of antiquity have learned the art, and will, on occasion, entertain a learned society by making an arrow-head out of the thick glass at the bottom of a bottle.

More formidable weapons were the tomahawk, which after the introduction of iron was generally made of that metal, and the scalping knife.

Against these weapons the first settlers were more than prepared by the armor which they brought with them. For a permanent plate-armor still remained in the military customs of those days, and in the old museums there will occasionally be found a breastplate or a helmet of iron or other metal, strong enough to resist quite a heavy blow. But it soon proved that such protection was unnecessary against the simpler weapons of the savages, and, as the reader of the last chapter knows, cotton was introduced, so that body-corselets might be worn, thick enough to turn away an Indian arrow.

The picture on the next page of a number of curious weapons shows the sort of side-arms worn by military men between the year 1620 and the year 1775. They are framed for preservation in the library of the Massachu-

setts Historical Society. The persons to whom they belonged are: 1, John Brooks, a colonel in the Revolution and governor of Massachusetts, 1816–1823; the sword marked 2 is believed to have been dug up on the field of Bunker Hill itself; 3, Miles Standish, captain of the train-band of Plymouth; 4, John Carver, first governor of Plymouth; 5, Sir William Pepperell, commander of the expedition against Louisburg; 6, William Brewster, one of the founders of the Plymouth Colony; 7, Benjamin Church, captain of the Massachusetts forces in Philip's War. The two pistols at the bottom are the "horse-pistols" used on occasions of ceremony by Governor Lincoln, who was governor of the state from 1825 to 1830.



Swords and Pistols of Colonial Times.

There was hardly such a thing as a permanent military force in any of the colonies. But, on the other hand, every settler knew that there was a certain danger of savage invasion; so that the use of arms,—common enough, of course, against wild beasts or for obtaining food,—was generally known among the people. In New England, from the very beginning, every able-bodied man was embodied in the "train-band." The train-band, it was known, would be of use against whatever enemy there was. A military organization, therefore, existed from a very early period, and in the autumn the train-bands were "mustered," in the form which survives, at least traditionally, so that a New England boy speaks of "going to muster" as to the great annual frolic of the year. In the short Pequot War of 1636 the efficiency of these forces was tested, and in Philip's War of 1675 the very existence of the New England colonies depended on the efficiency of the forces which they thus had trained.

The precise population of New England, either Indian or white, at the time of Philip's War, cannot be stated; but, for the purpose of war, it may be said that the forces on one side and on the other were almost equal. At that time the Indians were as well used to firearms as the whites, but the firelock of those days was but an inefficient weapon, compared with the musket of later times or with the rifle of to-day.

It seems certain that in Europe flintlocks had been introduced before this time; but on the whole the concurrence of evidence shows that such locks were not used in the civil war in England, and that both the king's party and the Puritans still relied on the matchlock. The form of this can be readily explained to any person who has seen the old flintlock of the present century. A hammer, a good deal larger than the hammer which afterwards held the flint, but quite like it, had a screw which tightened or loosened the hold which two pieces of iron had upon a match. Each soldier was obliged to carry some yards of this match with him, and when the battle began he lighted the piece of this match which was fixed in the hammer of the gun. A pan which held powder, exactly as the pan of a flintlock afterwards did, was in front of the hammer, with a cover projecting from which a sort of horn ran up nearly vertical, to be opened by the hammer when the soldier pulled the trigger. The fire of the match then communicated with the powder, and the gun went off.

This was a sufficiently complicated way in which men should go into battle, perhaps in a wilderness, where even the procuring of fire at that time was attended with some difficulty. The accounts of skirmishes of those times are full of occasions when a sudden shower put a stop to the whole battle. This is because the fire of the matches was extinguished by the rain.

To change this rather clumsy lock into a flint lock simply required that a flint of sufficient size should be screwed into the

hammer in the place made for the match. This flint, then, striking upon the cover of

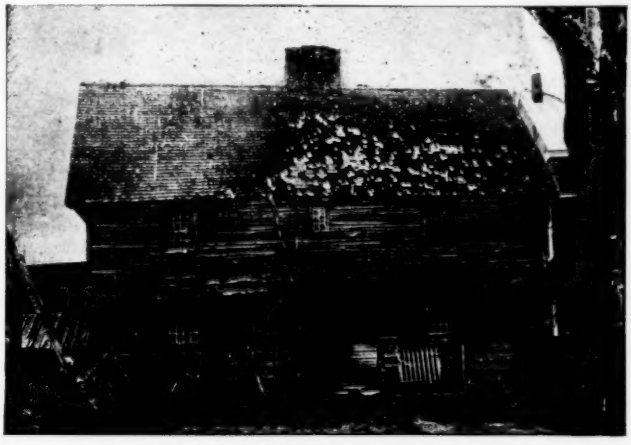
Early Boston Architecture.

the pan, made a spark which fell, at the moment the pan opened, into the powder. Eventually these locks were made with great precision, and so that the gun missed fire very seldom.

I have no doubt that one and another soldier in Philip's War found for himself that a flint Indian arrow-head, screwed in the place of his match, could be made to answer the purpose of firing the powder much more readily than the match itself could do. A similar invention, however, as I have said, had already been made in Europe, so that it is thought that flintlock guns have been found in France as early as 1640. In 1672, however, just before the war with Philip began, the law of Massachusetts and the provision made for her soldiers still required the use of the match-lock. Under the early statute every man was a soldier; and as late as that year every foot-soldier was obliged to provide and have in readiness "a good fixed musquet, not under three foot nine inches in length nor above four foot three inches in length, with a priming wire, worm, scourer, and mold fitted to the bore of his musquet." This mold was the mold in which he was to cast his own bullets. He was also obliged to have "a good sword, rest, and bandeleers."* The rest was the tripod, not unlike that on which a camera is now placed, on which he rested his musket when he fired it. Besides these, he must have "one pound of powder, twenty bullets, and two fathom of match."

Every town which had sixty-four such soldiers,—that is able-bodied men,—besides a sufficient number for officers, formed a foot company, which chose its own officers, and had two drums. In smaller towns, the soldiers had the liberty to name only their sergeants and inferior officers.

These train-bands were in more than one instance called out in Philip's War. But in practice, then as in more recent times, men of military ability called for volunteers, and formed companies which could be relied upon for prompt movement more readily than the train-band. The train-band, of course, called every man into service, and could be



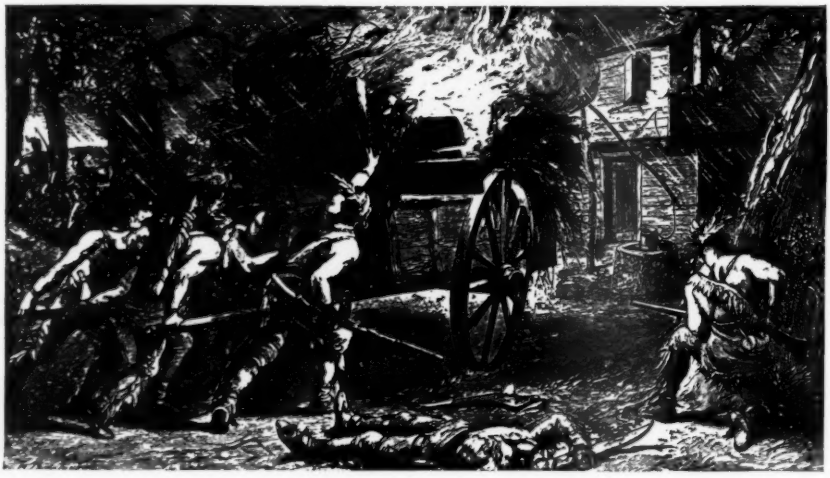
Old Sheldon House at Deerfield, Mass.

marched away from the town only in some very critical emergency.

*Also spelled bandeliers and ban-do-leers'. They were shoulder belts worn by soldiers from which cartridges are suspended. The following description more clearly explains its use: "A bandoleer slung over the shoulders carries the cartridge case, powder-flask, flint and steel, priming-horn, and other necessaries."

When the military laws were revised, under the pressure of Philip's War, this provision for the match which each soldier was to have, disappears, and in its place the soldiers are obliged to provide themselves with a sufficient number of flints to go into battle. It is evident, therefore, that the practical change began between the year 1672 and 1675. Still, old guns which have been found on the battle fields of Philip's War are found to have been arranged to carry the match instead of carrying the flint.

The directions of the same statute of 1666 relax the conditions with regard to armor, so far that "whereas corselets are wanting to many soldiers in several companies, and supplies therein are not easily to be attained, it is now ordered that every pikeman shall be provided with a sufficient corselet, buffcoat [which meant leather coat] or quilted coat, as shall be allowed by the chief officer." The corselet thus alluded to was one of the cotton quilted coats to which reference has been made.



Assault on Sergeant Ayres' Inn, North Brookfield, Mass.

The soldiers in the New England militia chose their sergeants and their captains by popular vote. The higher officers were chosen by the captains or, in some cases, named by the governors.

When the wars of England with France dragged the colonies into war with Canada, the military training of the colonies was tested in the raising of troops for various invasions of Canada, or for the defense of the frontiers, if men lived on the very borders. The old train-band system was still carried out, and all the able-bodied men of a town were in arms. But when the General Court of Massachusetts for instance ordered an expedition against Louisburg, or Quebec, or Montreal, a special enlistment was made for that service. As the eighteenth century went on, the number of men called out in such enlistments was very large. Eventually, the troops which were thus called out served in the West Indies, as they served under Amherst and Wolfe and other generals in the invasions of Canada. So many young men in the very prime of life went off on these expeditions that their loss materially affected the growth of the colony, and there were long periods of the history of the eighteenth century when it would seem as if the population of Massachusetts hardly advanced at all.

The first of these expeditions made against Quebec, under the rather clumsy management of Sir William Phipps, was an entire failure. The English government, from that time forward, however, was only too ready to join in suggestions which were made by the government of the provinces, for joint military and naval expeditions, in which England sometimes supplied a considerable number of men, and in which the money of England gave a stimulus in recruiting men in America. The French War, so-called, which

first called attention to Washington's military ability, was initiated in this country. The pretensions of the French to the exclusive navigation of the Ohio at once challenged the attention of the English governor of Virginia, and Washington, a young man hardly of age, made his first reputation in the employ of the state of Virginia in that business.

It was ten years earlier that Shirley, who was the ablest of the English governors in America, conceived the plan of the attack on Louisburg, which was made wholly by troops raised in New England, and, so far as the land expedition went, the success was wholly due to them. Admiral Warren of the English fleet co-operated, and maintained a blockade by sea, with some assistance from the provincial vessels. The spirit with which the New England soldiers went into this matter had in it a great deal of the religious enthusiasm with which the grandfathers of some of the same men had served under Cromwell. Whitefield himself gave the motto to the expedition, in the words "*Nil desperandum, Christo duce*,"—"Nothing is to be despaired of, while Christ is our leader." And the marvelous success of the expedition, in the capture of the strongest fortification in America, was such that pulpit and people alike were willing to give God the glory.

In that war, although it was thirty years before the Revolution, some of the oldest Revolutionary officers had their first training to arms. In the later war, in which Wolfe finally took Quebec, and which is generally known as the "Old French War" in our Revolutionary history, many of them had been under fire. It should be remembered, however, in all such studies of the American Revolution as the Chautauquans are pursuing, that in 1775 it was twelve years since England had been engaged in war at all. The great majority, therefore, of the English troops who were in this country had never fired a shot in anger till they came here, and it was only the older officers of that army who had had any practical experience at all. In the battle of Bunker Hill, for instance, the soldiers on both sides were generally men who were in battle for the first time.

In all the wars of the eighteenth century, the French on the frontier availed themselves pitilessly of the assistance of the Indians. The awful massacres which are connected with the names Schenectady, Haverhill, Deerfield, and other frontier towns, would never have taken place had not the Indian tribes concerned in them been instigated by French agents,—generally by French priests who had obtained their confidence. Against such attacks, the frontier towns were generally, to a certain extent, fortified. Schenectady, for instance, was fortified by a palisade which went all around the village, and admission to the town was obtained only by the carelessness of the guards, who had left the gates unprotected. Such palisades did not exist in all cases, but in every town there was a central block-house to which the inhabitants could retreat in case of attack. Such a house, perhaps, was the house at Deerfield, which has only lately been taken down. It was always known as the "old Sheldon house" and it is certain that in this house and the meeting-house near by, the captives were gathered on that dreadful morning before their march to Canada began. Of this house the picture on page 267 is from a daguerreotype taken before it was removed.

In attacks on these wooden towns, fire gave weapons which were difficult to resist. Dry shingles were easily set on fire by arrows with burning tow attached to them, and at closer quarters such an attack could be made as is represented in Darley's spirited picture, a copy of which appears opposite. It attempts to represent the assault on Sergeant Ayres' inn, at North Brookfield, Mass.

From such experiences as these it is that the older soldiers of the American Revolution

The Revolutionary Soldier.

were well trained in Indian fighting. Old Putnam, for instance, had learned all his lessons of war in this school. From this grew up the military tactics and strategy of the Revolution. And the consequence of such training was that, when the English and French officers went home, they entirely

changed the military tactics which had grown up under the school of Frederick. Lord Cornwallis introduced into the English light infantry the traditions and methods of the American service, and the French made similar changes in the slow and heavy movements of the infantry of France.

Such struggles came to an end in the fall of Quebec in the year 1759. In that attack were engaged many men and officers who met each other at one time or another in the subsequent campaigns. Thus General Howe,—who was, by an illegitimate descent, a cousin of not many removes of George III.,—made his first reputation as a captain in the attack on Quebec. His company was one of those which was first on the Plains of Abraham on the night when Wolfe surprised the town.

So soon as Quebec surrendered, Robert Rogers,—a New Hampshire man, of whose exploits as a ranger stories still linger in the story-books,—was sent by General Amherst to take the news of the fall of Quebec to Detroit. Rogers met Pontiac, the great chief of the Ottawas, who was then about fifty years old. He told him of the success of the English arms; and Pontiac, after a night for deliberation, said that he wished to be at peace with the English. The French garrison which held Detroit laid down its arms at once, as soon as it received the news. The Indians wondered that so few men should receive the submission of a body so much stronger, and accounted for it by some superhuman prowess among the English. Pontiac, however, watched his time, and at the opening of the year 1763 made his famous attack upon Detroit. The war which followed lasted for virtually three years, with terrible suffering on both sides. It was the last united effort of the Indians on the frontier against the resources of England. And with the treaty made in 1766, these collisions may be said to to have come to a close. This treaty was negotiated on the part of the English, by Sir William Johnson, who had so long been the real sovereign of those regions, and was the last great act of his remarkable career.

STATES MADE FROM COLONIES.*

BY DR. JAMES ALBERT WOODBURN.

Of Indiana University.

NO part of American history has of late years been so thoroughly studied as the formative period of the Union. Germs of union were found in the early colonies and in their previous history, but the "formative period" may properly be said to embrace the years from the beginning of the controversy between the colonies and the mother country, 1763, to the inauguration of Washington as first President of the Republic. Washington became president April 30, 1789. By that year, it may now be asserted without question, the states and the *people* of the states, had been united into a complex federal republic; into a republic not consolidated, yet national, with self-government in states supreme in certain spheres of action, within a sovereign nation supreme in other spheres assigned to it by the Constitution.

The Constitution was more of a beginning than a consummation,—the beginning of a nationality which it required two generations to complete and clearly to define. But in this beginning, though the fact may not then have been consciously recognized, the movement had been accomplished by which the colonies had been converted from dependencies into "an indivisible union of indestructible states." There is no more instructive portion of our country's history than that which describes our gradual separation from England, the constitutional grounds upon which our fathers based the Revolution, the political causes impelling to independence, the revolutionary government of the Continental Congress, the old confederacy and its failure, and the slow and hardy effort which brought the states through "grinding necessities" into a "more perfect union." It was a great period of re-creation.

No period of our history, it may also be said, has been so much the subject of historical controversy. Political philosophers, theorists, and opposing schools of political thought have come to the study of this formative period in order to establish their

* Special Course for C. L. S. C. Graduates.

preconceived opinions and theories on the political and constitutional nature of the union. With theory in hand they have gone to the historical text for the proof. History is like the Bible—one generally finds within her pages what he is looking for, and she cannot prevent the stupid from misunderstanding her, nor the biased partisan from quoting her. It is very clear to the reader who cares merely to read and be satisfied with what the record of that important period has to tell us that there was then no *theory* about the "union" or about "sovereignty," "supreme law," "states rights," or the "relation of the states to the nation." The historical student finds nothing about any of these things in the record. It is now difficult to divorce the study of that time from these subsequent and unhistorical theories, but I shall attempt in this paper to subordinate, at least if I may not disregard them, and to trace briefly the course by which the thirteen colonies were made into states.

The close of the Seven Years' War, 1763, marks an epoch in the world's history, "a turning point not only in the history of America but in the history of the world." In the famous Treaty of Paris in that year, England first came into possession of her world-empire. She had gained in the conquests of that great war the empire of India, America, and the sea; it was not until then that it could truly be said that "the sun in his course never set upon England's dominions." This war which had exalted England had humiliated France. "Dupleix [dü-plā] and Montcalm," says Green, "had aimed at building up an empire which would have lifted France high above her European rivals. The ruin of these hopes in the Seven Years' War was the bitterest humiliation to which French ambition had ever bowed." France was forced to surrender Louisiana to Spain and Canada to England, and to retire from the continent of America. In the same treaty England received Florida from Spain and there was lifted from the colonies the dread of French and Spanish aggression on both north and south. As Lecky says, "The colonies were no longer between the upper and the nether millstone; America was English."

It was at this stage of English conquest and establishment in America that the new ministerial policy of Grenville precipitated the controversy between the colonies and the mother country. The war over, the French power expelled from America, the colonies safe, and the debt burden of the nation increased, Grenville resolved upon three distinct measures, which, by the interpretation of a great English historian, produced the American Revolution:

1. To enforce the trade laws.

2. To quarter in America a part of the British army.

3. To raise by parliamentary taxation of America a part of the money necessary for the army's support.

With the first enforcement of this policy, by the Writs of Assistance and the Stamp Act, began the separation of the colonies from England and independent action began which led them to statehood.

It was on the 7th of June, 1776, that Richard Henry Lee of Virginia offered his celebrated resolution in the Continental Congress in Philadelphia, that "these united colonies are, and of a right ought to be, free and independent states." At that time there had been in America, outside of Canada and the West Indies, for more than half a century thirteen separate and distinct corporations under English rule. Virginia had been in political existence since 1607, for one hundred and sixty-nine years, and Georgia since 1733, for forty-nine years. Between these dates the other colonies had become permanently and firmly established. By whatever names their respective governments may be known, it is clear that there had been established for each a government of laws and not of men. Most American schoolboys have now become acquainted with these three forms of the colonial governments:

1. The republican, or, as usually named, the charter governments, in which the governors were elected by the people. To these colonies there was conceded by the Crown the largest measure of representative self-government. Rhode Island and Connecticut were the only two colonies of this kind.

2. The proprietary, in which the governors were appointees of the proprietors, as in Maryland, Delaware, and Pennsylvania.

3. The royal, in which the governors were the agents or appointees of the Crown. In this category were found Georgia, the two Carolinas, Virginia, New Jersey, New York, Massachusetts, and New Hampshire. Massachusetts has been called by Prof. Alexander Johnston, a semi-royal colony, because

it had originally pure republican privileges, and because by the later charter of William and Mary, 1692, it still retained a large measure of its early chartered rights, though its governor was appointive in the Crown.

All the thirteen colonies with these respective governments, were alike in at least two particulars which are here important:

1. They each had a representative Legislative Assembly, elected directly by the people, and this Assembly in each colony was the body which controlled the assessment and expenditure of public money. All colonies alike stood for the right of this Assembly to control domestic taxation. They were willing alike to pay, and to suffer if need be, as loyal members of the British Empire in common with their fellow citizens of the mother country in their old home, in order to support the trade laws, interests, and policy of the Empire. This they would do though it conflicted with their local and provincial welfare, in order that the interests of English trade might be furthered against the rest of the world. It was only when the foreign parliamentary power attempted to usurp the prerogative of these time-honored Colonial Assemblies in the matter of domestic taxation, that the colonies united to resist. It was this constitutional prerogative of taxation through representation in their own Assemblies, a prerogative which they truly held to be as old as Magna Charta, to the maintenance of which the colonists pledged their "lives, their fortunes, and their sacred honors." It may be said that when the overt act of war with England came some colonies had grievances and some had not, but in the principle on which the internal affairs of the colonies should be administered all the thirteen colonies were alike and agreed. This was the dominant fact in the composition of the colonies so soon to become states; and it has been the dominant fact through their changing history in our century of national life under the Constitution.

2. The colonies were all alike subject, in some measure, to the imperial sovereign power of England. Whether, in theory, they were nominally subject to the king or really subject to Parliament does not matter. It was only an after-theory which taught that the relation of the colonies, on the imperial side, was with the king and not with the Parliament; that Parliament had no constitutional control over them; that while they were subject to the same sovereign with the people of England they had not the same, but a different, Parliament; that to the colonists the "king in Parliament" meant the king in their Colonial Assemblies. This political fiction was never thought of when Gadsden, Otis, and Adams first found it necessary to vindicate American liberty, nor was it ever recognized by the great statesmen who became the defenders of our constitutional rights in the English Parliament. In the beginning of the controversy when men first entered the struggle to maintain an instant right or to remedy an instant wrong,—before an exigency or a party cause made necessary a new political theory to justify proposed changes and measures, all men recognized that Pitt had spoken truly when he said: "I assert the authority of this kingdom over the colonies to be sovereign and supreme in every circumstance of government and legislation whatsoever. They are the subjects of this kingdom, equally entitled with yourselves to all the peculiar privileges of Englishmen, equally bound by its laws, equally participating in the Constitution of this free country." Indeed the colonists were always glad to claim what they had been guaranteed by their very earliest charters, namely, "all the liberties, franchises, and immunities of free denizens and natural subjects to all intents and purposes as if they had been abiding and born within this our realm of England." While seeking these rights and privileges they never denied, until war was inevitable, the right of Parliament to legislate for them and their affairs. In this respect, also, all the colonies were alike and agreed.

On the 4th of July, 1776, the colonies in union renounced the common allegiance which before they had all separately acknowledged. By that act one of these two points of similarity among them which we have pointed out, disappeared. Before the Declaration they were colonies, after it they were states. Before and after adoption what was the difference? Obviously there was none in their political constitution except in the disappearance of the common bond of allegiance. "The political relations existing in the colonies *after* the Declaration," as President Small of Colby University has so aptly shown in his "Beginnings of American Nationality," "were simply those existing *before* that act minus those which the Decla-

ration sundered." The only sundered relation was that of their common allegiance to England. Within the colonies government was administered in all essential respects as it had been before. They were now bound by ties of sympathy and mutual interests to act together under the advice of the Continental Congress, but there had never yet been formed any inter-colonial bonds of a legal or political nature. They had had, during all these years of colonial life, a common origin, a common race, a common language, common interests, common institutions, and common law. These points in common, which were non-political, they still retained. They now had, besides, a common end in view and were facing a common peril, but politically they had lost a common relation. They no longer had a common sovereign.

It is easily obvious to the careful reader of American history during the ten years immediately following the Declaration of Independence that the dominant fact in that critical period was the strenuous jealousy, within the new-made states, of any sovereignty external to themselves. They spent thirteen hard years, one for each of the colonies, in recovering or re-creating a common sovereignty.

It is obvious that to the citizen of Virginia, for instance, before 1776, there were two sources, and only two, to which he looked for law and authority in matters of government. The Colonial Legislature of Virginia and the imperial power of England were the only two authorities in government which he recognized, or which he knew anything about. No other political body whatever had any right or authority to tax him, to make law for him, or to arraign him and judge him in a civil court. Now, it has been observed that the American Revolution was eminently conservative in its nature. It was English and not French, conservative, not destructive. Our fathers were seeking to save an old constitution not to make a new one; and it was the purpose of their Revolution, a purpose which they fully executed, to preserve their old forms of government in the colonies. With all this, the Declaration of Independence was a destructive act. It created nothing. It brought no new government into existence. It *declared;* and what it declared was that an old allegiance should be broken off and that certain governments already in existence should be independent.

Thus we see that the Declaration was destructive at least to the extent that the authority of England, as one of the elements in the double government of our Virginia colonist or his fellow Englishman in any of the other twelve, was repudiated and destroyed.

The other element, however, the government and authority within the colony, in all essential features went on without interruption. There were readjustments, old forms took on new names, but in the state governments *de facto** which were organized while state constitutions were being formed, and under these constitutions themselves the old colonial governments were retained in all essential features.

Virginia had resolved that "the people of this state, being by the Providence of God free and independent, have the sole and exclusive right of governing themselves as a free, sovereign, and independent state; and having from their ancestors derived a free and excellent constitution of government, whereby the Legislature depends on the free annual election of the people, they have the best security for the preservation of their civil and religious rights and liberties."

Connecticut had enacted that "The ancient form of civil government contained in the charter from Charles II., King of England, and adopted by the people of this state, shall be and remain the Civil Constitution of this state under the sole authority of the people thereof, independent of any king or prince whatever. And that this republic is, and shall forever be and remain, a free, sovereign, and independent state, by the name of the state of Connecticut."

These are representative extracts from the new instruments of government under which the states were rising out of colonies. Some of the states had formed constitutions before the Declaration of Independence. In all of them, either by constitutional or *de facto* governments, the people had taken up and exercised all the powers of civil government. From 1774 to 1781 the colonies were in a transition stage. They were passing from colonies to states, remaining the same in substance while changing their form and name. If any one act defines the transition, if any political act in history may be said to

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*Latin for in fact. Actually existing without any reference to legal or moral right. "The phrase usually implies a question as to whether the thing existing *de facto* exists also *de jure*, or by right."

have made the states out of colonies, it must have been the Declaration of Independence. We may repeat, before it they were colonies, after it they were states.

The colonies thus passed into state-hood. But they were by no means states within a national union as we conceive them to be today. The hard, slow, and reluctant process by which a national sovereignty was created to enfold these states within an indivisible union is the story of the next twelve years. So slow and hard and gradual was the process, indeed, that the national Union in its indivisibility was not fully and finally recognized until Grant met Lee at Appomattox.

It cannot come within the view of this paper to examine the theories which have arisen about the early national history of these states. It is said in a popular "Manual of our Constitution," "The Nation and the States were born on the same day. Hitherto there had been colonies and the mother country to which all the colonies acknowledged allegiance. Now the sovereignty was no longer in great Britain but in the people themselves, who claimed to be a separate political community. From that day (July 4, 1776) the nation itself through Congress exercised all the functions of government." The flagrant historical fallacies in these statements need no refutation with the student who has looked into the record of these times. They are altogether unhistorical and untrue. Only the record itself, of what the Congress, the states, and the people thought, said, and did,—this record only can show us the undefined relation which then existed between the Continental Congress and the states. This Congress was then the only "national" power in existence. Whether the uncertain and extra-constitutional union which it represented was essential, not only to the independence, but to the separate and individual *existence* of the states is a question, strange as it may seem, which has long been, and which will probably long continue to be, a subject of controversy with speculative political writers. But the controversy was not a part of the history of that time. It arose for obvious purposes in a subsequent age. Some have asserted that there never were, nor could be, states without the Union. Bancroft, our greatest historian of this interesting period, has said: "The colonies never existed separately as independent states or peoples. As they rose they united. The unity symbolized by the crown, passed to the good people of the colonies, who collectively spoke the word for totally suppressing all authority under the king . . . and investing all the several colonies with authority to institute governments of their own." From the standpoint of historical study this language, wherein it is not untrue, is, to say the least, unscientific. It is chiefly figurative and theoretical. Clearly, it does not describe or relate what happened. Like the passage which we quoted above it forms one of many statements of a *post bellum* * theory about the *origin* of the nation altogether unnecessary to sustain the national view of the Constitution. The theory would produce for us a nation full-formed, if not full-grown, at the beginning, forbidding us to look and see that this nation made from states, our *e pluribus unum*, was a natural growth and not a supernatural creation.

* After the war.

THE COLONIAL SHIRE.

BY PROFESSOR ALBERT BUSHNELL HART.
Of Harvard University.

ON the eastern shore of Virginia, some months ago, the writer was told that a certain man wished to be elected "Commonwealth" for Ac'co-mac County. The desired office, it appeared, was that of County Prosecuting Attorney for the Commonwealth of Virginia. The connection in the popular mind between the local office and the state's authority dates back to the earliest colonial history; for Accomac was one of the seven shires created by the first American act establishing counties, in 1634. With the county we are all familiar; the powers of county government, for evil as well as for good, were illustrated by the Tammany Ring frauds in the County of New York, under Tweed's direction. We have county courts, county commissioners, county sheriffs, county attorneys, county taxes, county regulations. To be sure there are at least four

types of county government in operation: the word means a very different thing to men from Massachusetts, Alabama, Michigan, and Ohio. Nevertheless all the varied forms may be traced back to one prototype, the English shire; and the varieties were developed in colonial times. The colonial shire marks therefore a transition; and in the process the shire increased in importance; so that our present counties are more powerful than that from which they sprang.

By the Act of 1634 the seven shires of Virginia were to be "governed as the shires in England." What was the shire which the emigrants had known, and what was its government? The English shire was the principal political and administrative subdivision of the kingdom. It was a judicial district, each shire having a court of its own for minor offenses; it was a military district, the able-bodied men in each forming a division of the militia; it was an executive district through which the laws of the kingdom were kept in force, and taxes were collected; it was a legislative district, with the power to tax itself for local purposes, and to make local laws; finally, it was a political division, within which certain officers were elected.

The shire was of course not the only self-governing subdivision: there were boroughs and cities and parishes, all laying their own local taxes and having their own local authorities; but the shire differed from them, at the time of the settlement of the colonies, by having lost its earlier popular government. The only direct share of the people in county government was in the assembly of the freeholders—perhaps a tenth of the adult men—to choose two unimportant county officers, and also to choose county members of Parliament, the so-called "Knights of the Shire." The government was in the hands of officers commissioned by the crown. The sheriff collected taxes and executed directions of the courts; the lord lieutenant commanded the militia; but the principal officials were the justices of the peace. Their joint meetings, called "quarter sessions," were not only judicial courts but a sort of local legislature. They levied county taxes and administered the shire. They were usually not lawyers, but the principal gentlemen resident in the county. They probably represented the voters as well as elective officers could have done, and there seems to have been little dissatisfaction with the system in England.

This, then, was the institution which Virginia in 1634 and the other colonies soon after attempted to transplant. It was quickly seen that the conditions were very different: instead of a dense population with few landowners and a recognized aristocracy from which to choose justices of the peace, the colonies had large territories, thinly populated, many owners of land, and, except in a few colonies, no permanent aristocracy. The materials for the English county government could not be found in the colonies. Moreover there had been other units of local government established before the counties were framed: the towns in New England and the middle colonies, hundreds* in Maryland, parishes in Virginia and South Carolina, were already exercising some of the powers of the English shires. The county came in as a sort of interloper, in some colonies always inferior to the towns, in some dividing power with them, in some putting them into an inferior position, in some driving them out altogether. The English shires were all substantially on the same model, and could be altered with great difficulty: the colonists freely tried experiments and copied from each other. Thus Virginia in 1662 tried to make the shire and parish independent; in 1679 to have a sort of dual shire-and-township government, and later to make the county supreme.

The result of experiment and custom was that at the time of the Revolution there were four distinct types of county government in the colonies, and each of the present states of the Union has adopted one of these types. In New England the county was subordinated to the town. County officers were elected, to be sure, but their powers were few. South Carolina and Maryland adhered in general to this type. It will be noticed that these were all colonies of comparatively small area, with the population gathered more or less closely on the seacoast or navigable rivers; and they were all commercial. Local government in divisions smaller than a county was therefore easy. The New England system still prevails in that part of the country, and in some Western states.

The second type of the colonial shire was developed in New York; here there was a

* A name given in some parts of England to the subdivision of a shire. It may have originated from a proposed plan of having such divisions comprise one hundred families or one hundred warriors or one hundred manors.

county government and in addition a board of supervisors, each member of which was chosen by a township. The system still prevails in New York and has been adopted in Michigan, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Nebraska.

A third form of development is seen in Pennsylvania. Here the towns had at first been superior, but they were afterwards subordinated to the county. The most remarkable thing about the Pennsylvania system is that the county offices, although exercising large powers, were nearly all elective. The Pennsylvania model was followed by most of the new Northern states, and has been the most influential in the West

The fourth type was highly developed in Virginia. It is historically the most interesting to us, because it was least like our present county governments, and most like the English precedent. Hence the county was the recognized agent for most of the purposes of local government; the parishes existed, but were comparatively unimportant. To this type New Jersey and North Carolina inclined; it still prevails in most of the Southern states, and in some of the Western. For the introduction of the system there is a geographical reason. The plantations were widely scattered, there were no considerable centers of population; a large area, unsuited to town government, must be taken together in order to collect a sufficient population to form a local government. The average population of a Virginia county at the time of the Revolution was probably less than that of a Massachusetts town. Still more significant was the fact that county government in Virginia was out of the hands of the people and exercised by officers appointed by the governor. As in England, so in Virginia, county administration was a reversal of the principle of popular government.

Amid so many variations it is of course quite impossible to describe in detail the form of colonial county governments. Much more than the towns and parishes the shires were subject to colonial legislation. They were created, united, and subdivided, often without their consent. In the New England colonies there were few, in Rhode Island but three, in Virginia there were seventy-four in 1781. Nor was there any standard of size. In 1778 Virginia erected the county of Illinois out of the vast region between the Mississippi and Ohio and the Great Lakes, a space now occupied by more than five states, and having a population of fifteen millions. In like manner county offices were created and then destroyed. Besides the general laws prescribing their duties, county officials were subject to special directions from the colonial authorities. Thus in 1713 Governor Spotswood of Virginia gave special orders that on the next Sunday a proclamation should be "opened, read, and published at the principal church of each parish, immediately before divine service by the sheriffs of the respective counties, their officers or substitutes on horseback." Although there was nowhere any colonial central office for dealing with county officials, their appointment by the governor in many colonies gave the general administration sufficient control. Occasionally special provision was made for their discipline. It was enacted in Virginia that

"Whatsoever justice of the peace shall become soe notoriously scandalous upon court dayes at the court-house, to be soe farre overtaken in drinke that by reasen thereof he shalbe adjudged by the judges holding court to be incapable of that high office and place of trust, proper to inherett in a justice of the peace, shall for his first such offence be fined five hundred pounds of tobacco and cask."

Under the Virginia type of shire government,—to a less degree under the Pennsylvania and New York types,—the county system tended to strengthen the central colonial government, and particularly the governor's authority.

Had the body of county voters had more power, they might have counteracted the centralizing tendency; but nowhere did they elect all the county officers; and only in Pennsylvania did the elective officers have considerable powers. The appointive officers were usually worthy men, but the interest of the people in their own taxation and governor was diminished by their inability to change their officers.

There was, to be sure, one institution which might have become a school of political discussion, like the town meeting: in Virginia, Maryland, and New York the people of the county assembled to elect members of the lower house of the colonial assembly. But the voters were few, through the general limitation of the suffrage to freeholders; and they had no power of legislation; the element of patient and general discussion was want-

ing. Nor was the choice precisely free; it was expected that men of recognized social standing should be selected. A Virginia gentleman about 1700 wrote to one of his friends that a member elect would "not be allowed to take a seat in the house where none but gentlemen of character ought to be admitted."

One device which might possibly have solved the difficulties of county government was never tried; perhaps an elective county council might have taken the place of the appointed commissioners. In New York there was a representative board of supervisors side by side with the appointive; but the supervisors had no powers except in regard to taxes. The only suggestion of a general county council which has come under the writer's notice was made by the town of Bellingham, Massachusetts, in 1773, as follows:

"We think it may be proper for the Town to vote that we desire Boston to promote in each Town within this Gov't Subscriptions of Petitions to the Gen Court to make a Law to establish Assemblies in each County to grant County Taxes and do such other Business as is proper for Counties to act, with Restrictions suitable thereto."

The colonial shire officers were much the same in function as those in England; but they had different names, and there was a tendency to increase the number. Still there was never such a multiplication of offices as in the town. The sheriff was the executive officer of the courts, but a separate officer or officers usually received the taxes. His service met with obstacles still familiar in the West. Here are some of the returns made to writs which had been given to Virginia sheriffs to serve.

"Not executed by reason there is no road to the place where he lives."

"Not executed by reason of an axe."

"Not executed because the defendant's horse was faster than mine."

Throughout all the colonies the most important county officials were the members of the board variously called "commissioners," "court of sessions," and—more commonly—"county court." This board was founded on the English "quarter-sessions," and was the prototype of our present county commissioners. The word "court" does not indicate that its only functions were judicial. To our forefathers a "court" was an assembly, with the power of deciding disputes between its members, and also authorized to pass votes binding on all those entitled to attend. The great commercial companies held "courts," which were only stockholders' meetings. The first legislative assembly in America, gathered in Virginia in 1619, after passing the earliest set of colonial laws proceeded to try an offender and to sentence him

"To stand fower dayes with his eares nayled to the Pillory . . . and every of those fower dayes should be publiquely whipped."

The county courts possessed a similar combination of judicial, administrative, and legislative authority.

The character of the members of the county boards is therefore a most important element in American government. Their sessions took the place in county affairs of the town meeting in town affairs. Although justices, they were usually not lawyers, but the leading men of their county; in the agricultural colonies they were likely to be the large planters or large farmers; in the commercial colonies, professional men and merchants. They might and often did at the same time hold town or parish or colonial office—indeed the colonial councilors—members of the upper house—were often *ex officio* entitled to sit on the board of the county in which they resided. In Virginia, where the system was most developed, the members had the unwritten right to nominate persons to fill vacancies. Hence arose many struggles with governors who appointed their own favorites. Thus

"Wm. Johnston Gent. being asked whether he would accept & swear to the Commission of the Peace; now Produced, answered, That he would not accept and Swear to sd: Commission because Anthony Stroder, William Hunter, and William Lyne are put in the Commission without a Recommendation from the Court."

As in England, service on the county board was without compensation; but it was an honor much desired. One objection to Mr. William Lyne was that he had begged for a commission from the governor. It was usual to serve for many years, and there was bitter complaint in 1698 because the governor of Virginia

"Renews that commission commonly every year, for that brings new fees, and likewise gives him an opportunity to admit into it new favorites, and exclude others that have not been so zealous in his service."

In Virginia the county court was most developed and had most power because in that colony most stress was laid on shire government. Whenever the powers of the shire were diminished it was usually the county court which was shorn, and not the sheriff or other county officers. Everywhere the judicial power of the English "quarter-sessions"* was retained, and in many colonies extended. In Virginia the county court tried for piracy and treason. Usually the causes were less serious, and often they descended to petty suits over a few shillings or to such criminal cases as the following:

"Geo. Dill fined [by a Massachusetts court] 40^s for drunkenes, & to stand att the meeting hous doar next Lecture Day, wth a Clefte Stick vpon his Tong, and a Pap[er] vpon his hatt subscribed for gross p^{r}meditated lying."

The following was the judgment of a Virginia court:

"That if Mister Holmes does not quit worrying Mister Jones and making him curse and swear so, he shall be sent to jail."

The military functions of the shire were also common to all the colonies; it is probable that the first counties were organized in order to provide a defense against the Indians. The militiamen of a shire usually constituted a separate regiment or other military body; and where there was a shire "lieutenant" or "commander" under whom stood the militia, his office was considered the most honorable connected with the county.

The next function of the English shire, the executive and administrative duties, were in some colonies entirely withdrawn from the county government. In most however, including Massachusetts, the county court or commissions collected taxes, supervised enforcement of colonial laws, and even saw to it that the towns or parishes performed their duties. Nowhere, except possibly in the New York and Pennsylvania types of county government, can the county be considered as a confederation or an aggregate of towns or parishes. The same people were collected both under the town or parish and the county governments; but the counties could not create towns or parishes and could not legislate for them.

Other legislative powers were abundant in counties of the Virginia type, and were not wanting in most of the other colonies. The power of the shires to tax themselves for shire purposes was almost universal; and in one colony or in another, the counties provided for roads, bridges, the poor, prisons, inspection of commodities, the appointment of minor officials, and many other matters.

At the beginning of the Revolution the counties suddenly assumed a political importance which they had never enjoyed before and have never had since. When the old colonial governments crumbled in 1774–76 the counties formed temporary centers of resistance and even of government. In the Continental Congress of 1774 sat delegates chosen by the counties of New Jersey, Maryland, and Virginia. Many county conventions met and passed patriotic resolutions. The most celebrated instance is the action of the committee of Mecklenburg County in North Carolina, which on May 20, 1775, passed several resolutions to the effect that there was no longer any royal authority in North Carolina, and that the people of Mecklenburg County had no government except the county officers whom they elected. A few years later the people of the County of Kentucky held conventions and threatened to withdraw from Virginia.

A very singular and little known episode in the history of the shire is the attitude of Berkshire County, Massachusetts. From 1775 to 1780 it refused to submit to the authority of the Commonwealth. During the whole five years no court was permitted to sit; and threats of secession were openly made.

County government is less important now than it was in colonial times; on the one side state and national legislation reaches further into details; on the other side, cities have arisen and have dwarfed the counties. Nevertheless the general acceptance of elective county officers has thrown new powers into the hands of the people; the precedents set by the colonies have been followed, and the four types of county government have further developed. The great merit of the colonial shires was that they kept alive the spirit of healthy local growth and vitality, without which it would have been impossible either to form or to preserve the Union.

*A criminal court held quarterly in England by justices of the peace in counties, and by the recorder in boroughs, and having jurisdiction of minor offenses and administration of highway laws, poor laws, etc.

THE HISTORY OF POLITICAL PARTIES IN AMERICA.

BY F. W. HEWES.

III.

THIRD PERIOD, 1844–1872.

SLAVERY, CIVIL WAR, AND RECONSTRUCTION.

SINCE the close of the war of 1812–15, the questions stirring the deeper interests of political parties had been those affecting the business prosperity of the country. Tariffs, internal improvements, financial panics, and the government deposits had furnished the chief planks of party platforms. Slavery, the ever-present question, crowded steadily toward the front and became for a long time the one great cause of conflict.

ELECTION OF 1844.—The annexation of Texas as a slave state was the chief issue of the campaign. The Whigs having their main strength at the north opposed the annexation and nominated Henry Clay of Kentucky. The Democrats favored annexation, and declared for the Oregon boundary at "Fifty-four forty [54° 40′] or fight." They nominated James K. Polk of Tennessee. The Liberty Party with the same platform and candidate as in 1840 (*see Abolitionists*) polled 62,300 votes and thereby gave the election to the Democrats, for had even half of its New York State vote been given to the Whigs, Clay would have been elected. The electoral vote was, Polk, Democrat, 170; Clay, Whig, 105. Had New York's 36 votes gone to Clay, he would have had 141 against 134 for Polk.

AMERICANS [Know Nothings—Constitutional Union Party], 1844–1860.—In 1844 an organization known as Native Americans opposed foreign labor, easy naturalization, and Roman Catholicism. In 1852 it bore the name of Know Nothings, and in 1856 uniting with the Silver Grays, a Whig faction, nominated Millard Fillmore and carried Maryland. Reorganized at Baltimore in 1860 as the Constitutional Union Party it nominated John Bell and carried Virginia, Kentucky, and Tennessee. At the opening of the Civil War the party disappeared.

ADMINISTRATION DEMOCRATIC

POLK 1845–1849

A resolution to incorporate Texas was passed by Congress and signed by President Tyler three days before President Polk took his seat, and in December following Texas was admitted. Although Texas was the last slave state admitted it was the Bull Run of slavery legislation. Public opinion became so strong that Congress (1845) rescinded the rule tabling petitions on slavery. The two great religious bodies, Baptists (1845) and Methodists (1846), each separated into Northern and Southern branches. Texas and Mexico had never settled the question of their boundary, and out of this question grew the Mexican War (1846). The same year a bill before Congress proposed to place about $2,000,000 at the disposal of the president with which to acquire territory from Mexico in settlement of the boundary. Out of this grew the Wilmot Proviso prohibiting slavery in any territory we might acquire of Mexico. After the war the treaty of acquirement of Mexican territory (1848) developed the doctrine of popular sovereignty; that is, that the question of slavery be left to the people of the territory. Northern Democrats gladly accepted this as a means of dodging both the Wilmot Proviso and the demand of the South that slavery should be permitted unrestricted course everywhere. Calhoun nicknamed it "Squatter Sovereignty." A disagreement on this doctrine caused the great Democratic split of 1860 giving the government to the Republicans.

OPPOSITION WHIG

In 1846 the northern Oregon boundary which threatened war with England, was fixed at the 49th parallel; the present subtreasury system* was established; and the tariff of 1842 was replaced by a tariff for revenue only. In 1846-7 the president vetoed bills for internal improvements.

ELECTION OF 1848.—The Democrats reasserted their platform of 1840 and nominated General Lewis Cass of Michigan. The Whigs adopted no platform and nominated General Zachary Taylor, whose popularity did much in winning the victory. Uniting

*See note on page 249 of "The Leading Facts of American History."—For history of the tariff see note on page 240; for "Nullification," "Treaty with Japan," "Carpet-baggers," and other similar references see the Index of same book.

with the "Barn-burners" (Van Buren Democrats of New York State) the Liberty Party took the name Free Soil Party, and, adopting the doctrine of the Wilmot Proviso as its chief plank, nominated Martin Van Buren and polled four times the vote of 1844. Ultra Abolitionists held aloof as the Liberty League. Taylor, the Whig candidate, received 163 votes · Cass, Democrat, 127.

ADMINISTRATION WHIG
TAYLOR-FILLMORE 1849-1853

The proposition to admit California as a free state plunged Congress and the country again into a heated controversy on the slavery question. The gold fever was raging and the wealth of California was too great an item for slavery to lose. In the midst of the debate President Taylor died (July 9, 1850). The accession of Fillmore created a similar though milder quarrel than that of Tyler.

OPPOSITION DEMOCRATIC

Congress, split into factions, could not soon agree upon anything. The South led by Calhoun demanded a constitutional amendment against proscription of slavery. The "Silver Grays" of the North broke from the Whigs because they took part in discussing the slavery question. Finally under direction of Henry Clay, a compromise was effected; California was admitted as a free state, the rest of the Mexican cession was left under "Squatter Sovereignty," and a strong fugitive slave law was enacted.

The filibustering* expedition (1851) was undertaken by wild adventurers to capture Cuba and effect its annexation in the interest of slavery.

ELECTION OF 1852.—Whigs and Democrats both advocated the compromise of 1850 and fought shy of the one great question. The "Barn-burners" returned to the Democratic ranks and the Free Soil candidate, John P. Hale, received a popular vote a little short of that of 1848. The Whigs nominated General Winfield Scott, and although their popular vote was nearly as large as that of the Democrats, their electoral vote was only 42 as against 254 for Franklin Pierce, the Democratic candidate.

ADMINISTRATION DEMOCRATIC
PIERCE 1853-1857

During the last administration, Clay, Webster, Calhoun, Polk, and Taylor died. The new men coming to the front, such as Sumner, Seward, Chase, Davis, and Stephens, were radicals in no mild sense. Northern men in the South and slave hunters in the North met no cordial welcome.

OPPOSITION WHIG AND REPUBLICAN

As heated as former controversies had been, a fiercer storm was coming. Early in 1854 Stephen A. Douglas of Illinois introduced what is now known as the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, proposing to repeal the Missouri Compromise, which made those territories free, and leave the people to decide the question for themselves. The bill met fierce opposition in Congress and aroused bitter indignation at the North. It was passed in May, 1854. The struggle was at once transferred to Kansas itself. North and South did their utmost to people Kansas with voters. Conflicts between the free-state and slave-state men were frequent. Violence was often resorted to and many deep wrongs committed. The contention amounted at times to civil war. Blood was often shed. The Federal Government dispersed the free-state men with an armed force. Debates in Congress were often very much like the struggles in Kansas, and in 1856 Senator Sumner was violently assaulted in the Senate by Preston S. Brooks of South Carolina.

The Ostend Manifesto (1854) favoring the acquisition of Cuba in the interest of slavery fed the quarrel. Several Northern states passed laws bordering on nullification asserting the personal liberty of their citizens against provisions of the Fugitive Slave Law. The country was ablaze north and south, and violence of thought and feeling, if not of action, ruled the hour.

The treaty opening Japan to American intercourse and commerce (1854) and the further reduction of the tariff (1857) were the chief acts of note outside of the slavery agitation.

REPUBLICANS, 1854—( ).—The Whig party made up of dissimilar factions (*see Whigs*) rapidly disorganized after the election of 1852.

* "The river Vly in Holland is said to have furnished the name flyboat in English, *filibote* in Spanish, to a sort of small, fast-sailing vessel. The buccaneers of the West Indies selected these vessels as the sort of craft best suited to their purpose [of depredation against Spanish commerce], hence they became known as filibusters, and the term has gradually extended to all pirates."—The United States having acquired Florida turned her attention to Cuba, and in 1843 President Polk offered to buy it of Spain for $100,000,000, but the offer was rejected. In 1849 a Spanish officer in the United States represented the people of the island as dissatisfied and eager for annexation to this government. Recruits were gathered and two or three attempts—the last in 1851—were planned to effect the union—all of which were discovered by the United States and frustrated.

Its stronger elements united with their natural allies, the Free Soilers and the Anti-Nebraska Democrats, in 1854, to form the Republican party. The Free Soilers had always from ten to twenty representatives in Congress, among whom were Sumner, Chase, and Wilmot. These, with the still larger Whig representation, gave the Republicans a Congressional footing at once strong and fearless.

The lineal ancestors of the Republican party were :—Strong Government Men (1785–1787), Federalists (1787–1819), National Republicans (1828–1834), and Whigs (1834–1854), remembering however that the "era of good feeling" obliterated all party lines, so that the National-Republican formation took its members from both Federalist and Democratic-Republican ranks. The ancestral doctrines—liberal constitutional construction and a government with strong executive powers—have not been modified except when the party was a party of opposition.

ELECTION OF 1856.—The Democrats affirming the principles of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill and reasserting its strict construction principles, nominated James Buchanan. The Republicans declaring against the extension of slavery and for internal improvements, nominated John C. Fremont. In 1852 the Democrats lost only four states, two Middle states and two Northern. This time they lost ten states, all Northern. Electoral votes: Buchanan, 174; Fremont, 114; Fillmore ("American"), 8.

ADMINISTRATION DEMOCRATIC
BUCHANAN 1857–1861

The Dred Scott decision (March 6, 1857) by the Supreme Court (Roger B. Taney, Chief Justice), averred that a slave was property merely, and that a slaveholder was entitled to his property everywhere, and that therefore the Government must protect slavery everywhere. This decision met with a storm of angry dissent throughout the North, and fed the flame of disunion in the South. The proposed proslavery Lecompton Constitution* for Kansas (1857) embittered Congress. This was, however, overthrown by the vote of the people (1851) and Kansas applied to come in as a free state, but Southern Senators blocked the way until the Northern Democrats, led by Douglas, refusing to recognize the unscrupulous methods of the administration, were almost in revolt. John Brown's Insurrection (1859) suggesting a possibility of an uprising among the slaves still further excited the South.

OPPOSITION REPUBLICAN

Important events aside from the slavery question, were an expedition sent to Utah (1857) to compel the Mormons to obey the laws; a financial panic (September, 1857) in New York which spread rapidly, suspending many banks and wrecking many business firms. Recovery was however comparatively prompt and industries soon resumed.

ELECTION OF 1860.—At the National Democratic Convention (1860) the Northern wing, led by Douglas, triumphed in the adoption of a resolution that the Supreme Court had the power of deciding the status of slavery. The Southern delegates withdrew. At later meetings the Northern wing nominated Stephen A. Douglas and declared for "Squatter Sovereignty" or in lieu of that, decisions of the Supreme Court; while the Southern wing nominated John C. Breckinridge and demanded that Congress legislate to protect slavery everywhere, regardless of all antecedents. The Republicans demanded that Congress should prohibit slavery in the territories, and nominated Abraham Lincoln. The Constitutional Union Party nominated John Bell and advocated "The Constitution, the Union, and the preservation of the laws." In the campaign, all issues except slavery were lost sight of. The electors voted: Lincoln, Republican, 180; Breckinridge, Democrat, 72; Constitutional Union, 39; Douglas, Democrat, 12.

SECESSION.—The South were fully determined to "rule or ruin." The period of four months between the popular election and inauguration, was their opportunity. They had the President, the Cabinet, and the Senate with them. They plunged at once into secession. Buchanan protested, but claimed he saw no way to prevent a state from seceding. Some of the Southerners thought it unwise, but they were beaten (says A. H. Stephens) by the cry that the "Southern states could make better terms out of the Union than in," indicating that at first secession was based on the idea that "the North would not fight" but would offer terms to have the South come back.

*This constitution was adopted by the constitutional convention which met in Lecompton; it declared the rights of owners to their slaves to be inviolable and prohibited the legislature from passing acts of emancipation.

The Secretary of War transferred munitions of all kinds from Northern to Southern arsenals, and finally joined the rebellion. The Secretary of the Navy leaving many of the best war ships in Southern navy yards, scattered the rest to remote stations.

Congress did nothing except to admit Kansas as a free state (January, 1861) and adopt the "Morrill Tariff" increasing duties. Even after Southern members had withdrawn, the remaining members made no preparation for the coming conflict.

ADMINISTRATION REPUBLICAN
LINCOLN-JOHNSON 1861-1869

While admitting the right of revolution to escape intolerable oppression, Lincoln denied the right of secession. He however announced that the Government would be content with securing and re-possessing its forts and other property, and would make no attempt to enforce its mails or public service on unwilling states. The North and West gave secession little heed. They thought it mere political thunder. As time passed they began to realize the fact, and when the rebel guns opened on Fort Sumter (April 12, 1861) they were fully awake.

OPPOSITION CIVIL WAR DEMOCRATIC

The war carried the country beyond the range of political parties; for the time being there were two countries: a North holding a party of union, and a South holding a party of disunion. There were "copperheads" at the North and "unionists" at the South, but they were as chaff before the wind.

The civil machinery of the National Government was not suspended, but its acts were such as called out no important opposition.

Government aid was given to the Union Pacific R. R. (1862); the National Banking system was established (1863); the Fugitive Slave Law was repealed (1864); and numerous laws passed to increase revenue.

ELECTION OF 1864.—As the close of Lincoln's first term approached, the opposition in the North became more marked. Those Democrats who had stood with the South from the first were joined by those who were growing tired of the war with its mistakes, its great expense, and the enormous public debt, and pronouncing the war a failure they nominated General George B. McClellan.

This was a most critical period. On the result of the election hinged the continued prosecution of the war, for the opposition demanded that the war should close. Fortunately a series of successes to the Union arms, and the steady advance of Grant on Richmond raised the hopes of the despondent and gave courage to the weak hearted. The Republicans renominated Abraham Lincoln, and the electors gave him 212 votes against 21 for McClellan.

THE RECORD CONTINUED.—At the outbreak of the war the Government was absolutely and persistently unyielding in its determination to have nothing to do with the slave question, and only after great pressure did the president finally (Jan. 1, 1863) yield and issue the Proclamation of Emancipation.

The assassination of President Lincoln (April 14, 1865) just at the close of the war, made Andrew Johnson President. The succession a third time led to a quarrel between the president and his party. Johnson was a Neutral Democrat elected by Republicans, and the "bone of contention" was the "reconstruction" of the states.

The war closed and slavery abolished, there came up the questions of the political status of the rebels and of readmitting the Southern states. In the midst of the war (1862) the penalty for treason was changed from death alone, to death or fine and imprisonment. Even this modified punishment was never inflicted. Some of the leaders were imprisoned for a time but never tried.

In June, 1863, West Virginia was admitted as a separate state. At the opening of the war the universal idea at the North was to compel the states to return with all their rights and institutions, including slavery, unimpaired. The Emancipation Proclamation (1863) legalized by the 13th amendment (1865) made it necessary that the returning states should recognize the abolition of slavery. In December, 1863, President Lincoln proclaimed the re-establishment of civil government in any state by the action of not less than one tenth as many voters as voted at the presidential election of 1860. The chief conditions were abolition of slavery, and amnesty to such voters as would swear to support the Government of the United States. He reorganized the governments of Virginia, Tennessee, Arkansas, and Louisiana on this plan, and Johnson proposed to follow out this plan and did appoint provisional governors in most of the Southern states. This was contrary to the will of Congress. The reorganized states passed such severe laws against the freedmen that Congress refused to receive

representatives from such states until their governments were more thoroughly in line with justice. Many plans were proposed and the problem became more important as it developed and Congress determined to make haste slowly. This delay angered Johnson and July, 1866, he vetoed a bill enlarging the powers of the Freedman's Bureau.* It was an important step toward reconstruction, and Congress passed the bill over the president's veto. March 2, 1867, Congress passed over the president's veto an act embodying most of the important features of the plan as finally adopted.

This plan divided the South into five military districts, each under the supervision of a military governor, with power to protect life and property. The states were to hold constitutional conventions excluding as delegates certain Confederate leaders, but not excluding negroes. The constitutions framed by these conventions were to abolish slavery, repudiate the debts incurred during the Civil War, renounce the right of secession, and agree to pass no laws abridging the liberty of any class of citizens. These constitutions were to be ratified by popular vote after which they were to be accepted by Congress, after which the new state legislatures were to ratify the 14th amendment, and when that became a part of the Constitution of the United States, the representatives of such reconstructed states were to be admitted to Congress. Seven states were admitted in June, 1868, and the other four in 1870.

Johnson's vetoes were not confined to reconstruction acts. The bill admitting Nebraska with equal suffrage for black and white (1867) was passed over his veto, as was also the Tenure of Office Bill, which prevented the president from removing certain civil officers without consent of the Senate. In defiance of this act he removed Secretary of War Stanton. For this and other acts he was impeached and tried but lacked one vote of conviction. Just before the close of his term the 15th amendment was passed over his veto. This amendment made unquestionable the right of the negro to vote.

An important act of this administration was the purchase of Alaska from Russia for $7,200,000.

ELECTION OF 1868.—Eight of the seceding states were again in the Union and the negroes were naturally inclined to vote with the party that had persisted in demanding a recognition of their rights. The "Carpet-baggers" were on hand to see that the negro vote was not prevented. The Republicans were agreed in their policy of reconstruction, and nominated General Grant.

The Democrats were divided. The radicals were opposed to reconstruction and in sympathy with the whites of the South. The moderates were in favor of accepting the situation and reviving the old issue of "state rights." These prevailed and nominated Horatio Seymour, who received 80 votes against 214 for General Grant. But the popular vote of the two parties was nearly the same.

ADMINISTRATION REPUBLICAN
GRANT
1869–1877

The conditions in the South were unsatisfactory to all concerned. The ignorant blacks were controlled by the "Carpet-baggers" for personal ends. The "Kuklux" resorted to desperate measures to counteract the black vote. The United States troops were powerless, for violence ceased at their approach only to break out afresh in another place, and so gradually the reconstructed governments were overthrown by intimidating the black vote first at one point and then at another and the "white man's government" substituted instead. This done, state laws at once practically annulled the 14th and 15th amendments. The National government was not idle. The Civil Rights Act (1870) and the Election Act (1870) and the "Force Act" (1871), each sharply aimed against interference with the negro vote, all proved powerless. It fast became apparent that the only form of civil government that could be had in the South, was the "white man's government."

OPPOSITION DEMOCRATIC

Various acts (1869–1873) reduced the tariff from 48.6 per cent on total import to 38.1 per cent. Internal revenue tax was almost wholly abolished except on spirits and tobacco, and government bonds were re-funded at lower rates of interest. A financial crisis (1873) pressed heavily for several years. In 1875 an act was passed providing for resumption of specie payment, Jan. 1, 1879.

*"The name popularly given to the Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen, and Abandoned Lands, an office of the War Department of the United States, created in 1865 to care for the emancipated negroes of the South, especially with respect to education, assignment of lands, and protection of civil rights. It ceased to exist in 1872."

The "Treaty of Washington" (1871) provided for arbitration of the "Alabama Claims" thus averting possible unpleasant relations with England. The "*Virginius* Affair"* was settled (1873) thus avoiding possible Spanish complications.

Inadequate civil service regulations were adopted (1871).

May 22, 1872, Congress enacted a final and general Amnesty Law, thus finishing the work of legal reconstruction of the rebellious states and closing the work of the Third Period.

*"Troubles with Spanish authorities in Cuba had existed since the filibustering movements from the United States to that island begun in 1830. . . . . In 1873 war between Spain and the United States seemed inevitable. The steamship *Virginius*, flying the United States flag, suspected of carrying men and supplies to the insurgent Cubans, was captured by a Spanish cruiser off the coast of Cuba, taken into port, and many of her passengers, her captain [Fry], and some of the crew were publicly shot by the local military authorities." The affair created the wildest excitement, but was finally settled by the payment of indemnities by Spain.

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

[*December 6.*]

"There is a way which seemeth right unto a man; but the end thereof are the ways of death."—Proverbs XIV., 12.

THE chief concern and the most earnest effort of every rational being ought to be directed to the discovery of the right way through life. With a heart naturally disposed to error, and surrounded by influences which conspire to deceive and mislead him, no man can hope to avoid ruinous and fatal mistakes but by the continued exercise of the greatest watchfulness and care. The paths that lead to destruction are many and broad; they stand wide open on every side of us; it requires no search to find, it costs no effort to enter, them. But the single way that leads to life eternal is so straight and narrow and difficult, that few there be that find it. All who do not search diligently after it are sure to miss it; and what is still more alarming, many shall seek to enter in and shall not be able. "There is a way that seemeth right unto a man; but the end thereof are the ways of death." It is possible that the search after truth may be so conducted as to end only in error; that the firmest conviction of right may lead down to the chambers of death, and that a fixed assurance of safety may buoy up the heart until the moment when it is transfixed by the pangs of the second death.

This is unquestionably a most appalling truth. The man who is traveling an intricate and dangerous road, though he have the unperverted use of all his faculties, and adequate means for determining the right way, is in a situation sufficiently alarming to task his utmost caution. But how much more deplorable his condition if he be liable to be smitten with blindness or, worse still, to have his eyes so disordered as to misread every guidepost that marks his road, and his ears so perverted as to convert the sharp calls of warning that sound around him, into the bland assurances of safety.

Even thus perilous is the situation of man in relation to his eternal destiny. Endowed by God with moral faculties capable of discerning the right way, and furnished with abundant means of information, he may so pervert the one and neglect and abuse the other, as to become involved in fatal delusions. With an elastic step and a cheerful heart, without any fearful misgivings as to his course, he may be traveling the way to destruction, and learn his mistake only when it is too late to rectify it. Error may steal upon him under the guise of truth. Wrong may assume to him the appearance of right; and evil be conscientiously pursued as good.

Such is the doctrine taught in our text and abundantly confirmed by other declarations of the Scriptures. We read of those whom a deceived heart hath turned aside; who have turned the light that was within them into darkness, and who, because they loved not the truth, have been given over to strong delusions that they should believe a lie. The opinions which men entertain on moral subjects are never treated in the Scriptures as a matter of indifference; nor are they exempted from responsibility for the errors by which they are misled. On the contrary the Bible frequently teaches and always as-

sumes, that a right practice has its foundation only in a right belief; that goodness cannot exist independent of the truth, and that every man is accountable for his opinions no less than for his outward conduct.

The Bible is on this as on many other subjects, directly opposed to the maxims and opinions most current in the world. Who has not met with the trite lines of the poet,

"For modes of faith let graceless zealots fight,
His can't be wrong whose *life* is in the right."

[*December 13.*]

Who has not heard it said, with the air of confidence befitting a self-evident axiom, "It is no matter what a man believes, so that his practice be right"? How common is it for the most palpable and egregious errors to be excused under the soft plea that "they who hold them are sincere in their belief"; as if hypocrisy were the only vice of which man is capable. It has been proclaimed to the world as a great, a glorious truth, by one of the most distinguished among modern orators and statesmen, that men are no more responsible for their opinions than for the height of their stature or the hue of their skin! The same sentiment has found its way into professed treatises on morals—it has been spread abroad on the pages of our popular reviews. Poetry has embellished it with its charms and sophistry defended it by plausible arguments. We have even heard it drop from the lips of Christian people, who did not seem to be aware that the truth of the sentiment they were uttering is consistent only with the falsehood of the religion they profess.

If this sentiment were intended to apply only in limitation of man's responsibility to his fellow man for his opinions, we should have no quarrel with it. It is true that man is answerable for his faith before no human tribunal. This truth has in these latter days sounded abroad throughout the world, and the fires of persecution have gone out before it, and the rusted implements of torture are now hung up as the curious relics of a past age.

But it is not necessary to free men from responsibility to God to prevent the danger of persecution from man. Human law traverses but a small portion of that vast field which is covered, in every part, by the Dominion of God. It has no right to intermeddle with any of our opinions or feelings, nor even to control any of our outward acts, except so far as these are injurious to the peace and well-being of society. This evident limitation of the right of man over his fellow man, is the proper ground on which to rest the freedom of opinion. Here is ample room afforded to every one, when called in question for his opinions, either by a magistrate or by an intermeddling neighbor, to reply, "What is that to thee? to my own Master I stand or fall."

It is plain that error may be thus excused before every human tribunal, or rather exempted from its jurisdiction, upon grounds which leave untouched the question of its accountableness before the judgment seat of God.

[*December 20.*]

But the advocates for the innocence of error plead for it upon principles which exempt it from divine, no less than human, jurisdiction.

"A human being," they tell us, "can only be supposed accountable for those actions which are influenced by his will. But belief is entirely distinct from, and unconnected with, volition. It is the apprehension of the agreement or disagreement of the ideas which compose any proposition. The mind can only *believe* according to evidence. The will has no more power to withhold the assent of the mind from a proposition proved to be true, than it has to prevent the sensation of sight when an object is placed before the eyes. Belief is an involuntary state of mind, and as volition is essential to merit or demerit, it cannot be the proper object either of praise or blame." Such is the substance of the arguments urged in behalf of the opinion under discussion; and if these principles are correct, it certainly follows, not only that man cannot be rightfully called upon to account to *man* for his belief, but also that he has no such account to render to *God*.

It cannot be denied, and by some of its adversaries it is not concealed, that the opinion as thus stated and defended is at direct variance with the Scriptures. The contrariety between them is so direct and palpable, that the adoption of the one necessarily implies the rejection of the other. The Bible purports to be a messenger to us from God, revealing His will and our duty; and the prophets and apostles who come to us charged with the delivery of this message, uniformly command us to receive it as the

truth of God. They do not confine themselves to the exhibition of the evidence which illustrates and proves the truth of their doctrines; they do not content themselves with simply recommending the doctrines which they teach, as worthy of credit and beneficial in their tendency; but they distinctly command us, in the name and by the authority of God, to believe and obey their words. "This is the commandment of God, that we believe on the name of His Son, Jesus Christ our Lord."

They deliver their message as an authoritative exposition of the truth—and instead of teaching that it may be rejected by any without guilt, they declare that the direst penalties will overtake all who dare to disbelieve. "He that believeth not the Son shall not see life, but the wrath of God abideth on him." "He that believeth not shall be damned."

So far are they from teaching that belief is an involuntary and therefore an irresponsible operation of mind, that they represent it as the very criterion of moral character. Thus our Savior said to the Pharisees, "The publicans and harlots shall enter into the kingdom of heaven before you, for ye believed not John the Baptist—but the publicans and harlots believed him." If the responsibility of man for his belief were a remote inference from the other plain doctrines of the Holy Scriptures, we might suppose it doubtful, however clear the reasoning might appear which seemed to establish it. If it flashed upon us only dimly here and there as we turned the pages of the Bible, we might question its real import; but it shines through every page from beginning to end with a light too clear and steady to be mistaken. Whether the doctrine itself be true or false, right or wrong, may be matter of dispute—but it cannot be doubted that it is the doctrine of the Bible—nay, that it is one of the foundation truths upon which Christianity rests. If this be removed, the whole system must fall.

I shall attempt, therefore, to show that the declarations of the Bible upon this subject are in strict harmony with the course of Divine Providence in the world—and with the laws of right and wrong written upon our hearts.

[*December 27*]

If sincerity of belief is all that is required for our future well-being, we should naturally expect to find the same law prevailing in the administration of that government under which we now live. It should, in this case, be a matter of surprise to us that a man who is *honestly mistaken* should ever suffer any ill consequences because of his error. And yet what is more evident than that the well-being of every man in this life is dependent upon his knowledge and belief of the truths which preside over his earthly lot, and determine the conditions of his failure or success? The laws which govern the course of human events have a real outward existence, independent of the conceptions which we form of them—and it is not upon the sincerity, but the *correctness* of our belief in them that our happiness or misery is dependent.

It is not so much a deduction of reason as it is a fact of experience, that men are actually punished in this life for the errors of judgment into which they are, from whatever cause, betrayed. If through inattention, want of due reflection, or mere willfulness, they are led to adopt erroneous opinions respecting the conduct of life, they never fail to reap the ill consequences of their error. This truth is daily exemplified before our eyes—and he is a happy man whose own experience does not furnish him with many luminous illustrations of it.

There is no man who has not learned that his own convictions have no tendency to alter the substantial nature of things around him, or to suspend or modify in the least degree, the operation of those laws to which he has been made subject. These remain the same, retaining their intrinsic properties and working out their predestined results without any influence from the mutable opinions of man. Though all men should believe that the earth is fixed in space, as it appears to the sense, this belief would not stay for a moment her swift motion in her orbit. The ancient philosopher who had persuaded himself that there was no external world, that these solid seeming realities around us are but appearances or fantasms of the perceiving mind, and who on this account refused to get out of the way of what seemed to be a carriage coming toward him, was crushed to death, notwithstanding the sincerity and strength of his conviction that there was no danger. He who should swallow poison under the firm belief that it was wholesome food, would nevertheless find in death the penalty of his mistake.

Does not the drunkard often continue to drain the deadly cup, on the ground that it is necessary for his health? But when was it ever found that this belief stayed the tremulousness of his hand, the bloating of his body, the wateriness of his eye, and the other signals which suffering nature holds out, of present distress and approaching dissolution?

It must be evident to every man that we are placed in this world under the dominion of laws that coming from some higher source than ourselves, remain fixed and immutable; that there are certain truths easily discoverable, the knowledge of which is absolutely essential to our existence—and that there are other truths, more difficult of discovery, which we must know in order to gain the highest good which is here within our reach. All things have been so arranged as to hold out a boon for extensive and accurate knowledge, and to discourage ignorance and error under the severest penalties of forfeiture and suffering. Under this aspect it is apparent that the life we now lead is a life of faith. The knowledge and belief of the truth is its vital principle.

If there be any who are disposed to venture the salvation of their soul upon the opinion that truth is of no importance except in the sense of sincerity, let me warn them to make proof of the efficacy of this opinion upon the world around them. Persuade yourself that poison has no noxious property—and see whether this persuasion will deprive it of its deadly character. Take a viper to your bosom under the conviction that it is harmless and see whether this conviction will extract or blunt its sting! Teach yourself to believe that industry is not necessary to success in life, and see whether this belief will shield you from the insignificance and privations which follow in the train of indolence! If the real, substantial nature of things here remains unchanged by your opinions, what right have you to suppose that the realities of another world will be more flexible? If error here is always attended by calamitous results, upon what safe ground can you judge that it will be harmless there?

Reflect thoughtfully upon this subject and you will find in the observation and experience of every day abundant reason to fear that there is a way that seemeth right to a man, but the end thereof are the ways of death.—*Albert B. Dod, D.D.*

PHYSICAL LIFE.

BY MILTON J. GREENMAN, PH. B.
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III.

RESPIRATION.

IN order that the vital processes may be carried on there must be a continuous supply of oxygen, either in the gaseous form as a constituent of air or dissolved in water or other fluids. The simplest organisms require no special organ to transform oxygen into an integral part of the living animal, but it is absorbed directly into the sarcode.* In the higher organisms the respiratory apparatus absorbs oxygen for the whole organism and eliminates the carbonic acid from the system.

When do we first observe a respiratory apparatus? We might answer that all animals having a circulating nutrition fluid (blood) have also a respiratory apparatus.

There being no circulating nutritive fluid in the low forms of life, respiration is carried on by all parts of the organism; oxygen is absorbed and carbonic acid is exhaled. That a circulating fluid is not necessary to respiration is proved by the fact that a piece of freshly cut flesh separated from the living organism continues to absorb oxygen and give off carbonic acid.

Respiration is, therefore, the absorption of oxygen and the elimination of carbon dioxide by a living organism. It is more active in mammals and birds than in reptiles and fishes; and in different classes of animals the organs by which it is accomplished vary in size and structure according to the activity of the function.

The principle of respiration is that the cir-

*[Sar'code.] Soft, structureless animal material, the fleshy substance of some of the lower forms of animal life.

culating fluid shall be exposed to the action of the atmosphere; and in all kinds of respiratory organs, whether they be lungs, gills, or air tubes, there exists a respiratory membrane, on one side of which is the blood and on the other side the air.

The oxygen acts upon the blood or is absorbed by the blood through this membrane and the carbon dioxide of the blood is exhaled through the membrane.

In man the respiratory apparatus consists of the lungs, bronchi [brong′kī], trachea [trā′ke-a], and larynx [lăr′inx]. The larynx is the cartilaginous box seen in the front of the neck and commonly spoken of as Adam's apple. It contains the vocal cords and a valve known as the glottis, which guards the opening into the trachea. From the larynx the trachea leads to the lungs where it divides and subdivides, forming the bronchi, which communicate with the air sacs. The wall of every air sac forms a small part of the respiratory membrane. On one side of the membrane is the blood, on the other is the air, and through the walls of these little sacs, which make up the greater bulk of the lung, the interchange of gases takes place.

The movements of respiration are in part active and in part passive: active during inspiration and passive during expiration. The inspiratory act is brought about by the contraction of the external intercostal muscles and the anterior, middle, and posterior scalene muscles, which raises the ribs and thus tends to produce a vacuum by increasing the capacity of the chest. The muscular partition which separates the thoracic from the abdominal cavity is one of the most important muscles of respiration, for by its contraction the chest cavity is enlarged. As soon as the chest cavity is enlarged, the air rushes in through the larynx, trachea, and bronchi to dilate the air vesicles and thus restore the pressure.

Expiration is largely a passive act. The chest cavity is reduced in size and the air expelled from the lungs by the elastic force of the muscles and ligaments of the chest, the internal intercostals assisting in lowering the ribs and in thus lessening the chest cavity.

The respiratory movements in man follow each other with great regularity at the average rate of twenty inspirations per minute. The rate varies under different conditions—posture, exercise, and age having much to do with the rate. Children breathe more rapidly than adults. A newborn infant takes 45 inspirations per minute, a five-year-old child inspires 26 times per minute. After fifteen years the average rate of inspiration is 20 per minute. Violent muscular exercise such as running, lifting, etc., increases the respiratory action in proportion to the work done. When lying down the number of respirations is slightly lessened.

Respiration is truly an involuntary act. We may cease breathing for a time but soon the nervous impulse is too strong to resist and we must breathe again. Likewise when we breathe rapidly for a time we are overpowered by the exhaustion.

It is estimated that on forced expiration there still remains in the lungs about 100 cubic inches of air known as residual air, which cannot be forced out. After a forced expiration about 230 cubic inches of air can be inspired. This is known as the vital capacity, which when added to the residual air of the lungs makes 330 cubic inches which the lungs contain after forced inspiration.

Ordinarily, lungs contain 100 cubic inches of residual air which cannot be expelled, 100 cubic inches known as reserve air which is expelled only during forced expiration, and 20 to 30 cubic inches of air which changes with every respiration. The air which may be inspired during forced inspiration is known as complemental air.

The following table will represent the capacity of the lungs:

Vital capacity 330 cubic inches.	Complemental air 100 cubic inches.
	Tidal air 30 cubic inches.
	Reserve air 100 cubic inches.
	Residual air 100 cubic inches.

From these figures we may compute the number of cubic feet of air required per hour for a person of average size.

Ordinary atmospheric air consists of 20 parts by volume of oxygen and 79 parts of nitrogen, with .05 per cent of carbon dioxide and traces of ammonia and a variable amount of watery vapor. Air which is expelled from the lungs has undergone two important changes:—it has lost 5 per cent of its volume of oxygen and gained about 4 per

cent of its volume of carbon dioxide. Besides these changes the expired air contains a small amount of organic matter thrown off by the lungs and a considerable vapor.

This interchange of gases varies in different animals according to their functional activity. Or it may vary in the same individual according to the amount of exercise taken. Respiration depends upon the amount of tissue consumed in the economy. When we run, a larger amount of tissue is used than when we walk; hence the respiratory function is increased. Why? Because during muscular exercise tissue is destroyed and oxygen is required that the waste tissue may be oxidized and exhaled or excreted.

Oxygen absorbed into the blood is by means of this fluid distributed to all the tissues of the economy.

The coloring matter of the red corpuscles is the principal carrier of oxygen. With this substance the oxygen unites in a loose chemical combination to be released as soon as it shall come in contact with tissue requiring oxygen. From the tissues the carbon dioxide is absorbed by the blood and is exhaled off while the blood is passing through the lungs.

Let us now observe the various forms of breathing organs which we find in the lower animals. In most microscopic forms of life oxygen is absorbed directly into the flesh or protoplasm of the organism, as there is no specialized part to absorb oxygen. Such is the case in all pro-to-zō′a and pro′to-phytes. Sponges breathe in like manner; as the water passes through the numerous pores its oxygen is absorbed by the cells. Coral polyps and jelly fishes breathe in a similar manner. In the star fish and other echinoderms [e-kin′o-derms] we find a circulating fluid which probably aids in supplying the organism with oxygen.

Many worms breathe through their skins, that is to say, the oxygen is absorbed by the blood directly through the skin. Others possess tufts of gill-like appendages which perform the respiratory function. On the other hand, worms which have become parasitic, like the tape worms, have undergone a retrograde development and have no circulating nutritive fluid, no respiratory, and no digestive apparatus, both oxygen and food being absorbed through the body wall as in all the lowest forms of life. Every plant and every animal which becomes parasitic degenerates and becomes so modified that we scarce can tell to what class of organisms it originally belonged. Most molluscs breathe by gills like fishes. The blood in the gills is there exposed to the action of the aërated water.

Some fishes, the *Dipnoi*, so called because they breathe in two ways, breathe both by gills and by lungs. The frog breathes during its life as a tadpole by gills, but after full development it breathes by means of lungs, though it also respires quite freely through the skin. The frog's lung is made up of large air cells like that of a snake.

A bird has the most perfect of all forms of breathing apparatus. The air cells of the lungs are numerous and thin walled, so that the blood comes in very close relation with the air and the body cavity as well as the bones are filled with air sacs and cavities. That the bird respires more rapidly or absorbs more oxygen in proportion to its weight than other animals is shown by the higher temperature of its blood; the heat produced being in proportion to the oxygen consumed. The cause of this is, probably, the great muscular activity required in flying. In birds the trachea is very much elongated and two larynges are present, one in the usual position back of the tongue, and a second known as the syrinx at the junction of the trachea and bronchi. In the syrinx lie the vocal organs of the bird.

Respiration is to an organism what a good draft is to a furnace fire.

DIGESTION.

All animals feed upon organic materials. All green plants on the other hand feed upon inorganic substances. Hence animals, both herbivorous and carnivorous, are dependent directly or indirectly upon plant life for their food.

Food as taken by animals is mostly solid, and in order that it may be absorbed by the system, it must first be dissolved. For this purpose man, like all other animals, is supplied with a digestive apparatus commonly known as the alimentary canal. This canal varies in structure in different animals as the details of the digestive process vary. As the food passes through this canal it comes in contact with the digestive fluids secreted by the mucous membrane of the canal and by the accessory glands, which liquefy its ingredients and render them capable of being

absorbed. Passing on through the canal the liquefied parts of the food are absorbed and the remaining refuse, known as fæces [fē'sees], is expelled from the intestine.

The alimentary canal of man is about thirty to thirty-five feet in length, and its principal divisions from above downward are as follows: the mouth, pharynx [far'inx], œsophagus [e-sof'a-gus], stomach, the small intestine—which is subdivided into the du-odē'num, je-jū'num, and il'e-um—and the large intestine, which is also subdivided into the cæcum [sē'kum], ascending colon, transverse colon, descending colon, and sigmoid flexure of the colon, and the rectum. Everywhere the canal is composed of an outer muscular coat, the fibers of which run partly in a longitudinal and partly in a transverse direction, a middle coat of fibrous tissue, and an inner coat, or mucous membrane.

The mucous membrane varies in structure in the different regions of the canal. The digestive fluids are derived: (1) from the salivary glands, which discharge their secretion, the saliva, into the mouth; (2) from the mucous membrane of the stomach, which secretes a digestive fluid known as the gastric juice; (3) from the pan'cre-as which pours its digestive fluid into the duodenum; (4) from the liver which pours its bile into the duodenum; (5) from the mucous membrane of the small intestine which secretes mucus and also a weak digestive fluid. All these digestive fluids differ physiologically; each performing its part in the digestive process. The nature of the changes produced by digestion in these fluids is partly physical and partly chemical.

The first part of the process of digestion is mastication,—a mechanical trituration of the food, by means of which it is mixed with the saliva and mucus of the mouth forming a pulpy mass upon which all the digestive fluids with which the food is soon to come in contact, will act more readily.

The saliva thus mixed acts upon the starchy substances of the food converting them into a kind of sugar which is soluble and will soon be absorbed by the blood.

A simple experiment will demonstrate the digestion which takes place in the mouth. Proceed as follows: Make a very small amount of starch paste and dilute it with eight or ten times its volume of water. Now take a thimbleful of Fehling's fluid (a solution which is used in testing for sugar and which may be obtained at any drug store), dilute it with four volumes of water, boil in a test-tube, and then add ten or fifteen drops of the starch solution and boil again. The color of the Fehling's solution will not be changed by the starch. Now add to another small amount of starch solution about four or five times its volume of saliva, which may be collected from the mouth by chewing a piece of rubber; allow the mixture to stand fifteen or twenty minutes, keeping it warm but not hot. Test this solution with the Fehling's solution, as the starch solution was tested, and a brick red precipitate will be formed in the test-tube, showing the presence of sugar. Thus we can easily demonstrate the fact that saliva will convert starch into glucose.* All the starch which is eaten, however, is not digested in the mouth as we shall see later.

The daily amount of saliva secreted by the glands, the pa-rŏt'id, sub-lingual, and submaxillary, is about twenty-five or thirty ounces. Saliva is colorless, slightly viscid,† alkaline in reaction, and its specific gravity is 1.005.

Passing on through the pharynx by the action of the constrictor muscles, the bolus‡ of food is conveyed into the stomach, which is a pear-shaped diverticulum‖ of the alimentary canal.

Here the food bolus comes in contact with a different kind of digestive fluid, the gastric juice. Gastric juice is composed of a substance known as pepsin, in solution with traces of free hydrochloric acid and a large amount of water. Here by the peristaltic⁋ action of the stomach the food is mixed with the gastric juice. The albuminous ingredients of the alimentary matters are attacked by this fluid and the food mass is reduced to a semi-fluid condition. The gastric juice acts on the gluten of bread freeing the starch; on fatty particles it acts by dissolving the fine albuminous covering of each oil globule; in like manner it acts on mus-

*[Glū'cose.] The name of a group of sugars less sweet and less soluble than cane-sugar.

†[Vis'sid.] Sticky, adhering; having a ropy or glutinous consistency.

‡[Bo'lus.] A rounded mass of anything.

‖[Div-er tik'u-lum.] A blind tube branching out of a longer one; especially out of the intestinal canal.

⁋[Per-i-stăl'tik.] Derived from two Greek words meaning around and to arrange. In anatomy the term is applied to the worm-like motions of the alimentary canal which force the food onward.

cular flesh, dissolving the connective tissue surrounding the fibrous bundles and the bundles become separated forming a gruel-like mass of minute fragments mixed with the gastric juice and dissolved albuminous matter. This mass is known as chyme [kime].

Food remains in the stomach on an average about three hours. The stomach digestion of milk is completed in about two hours; of fresh salmon-trout, boiled, in an hour and a half; of soused tripe in one hour; while boiled or roasted chicken requires four hours; boiled pork four hours and a half; roasted turkey two hours and a half. Albuminous substances dissolved by pepsin are known as peptones and are to be found in large quantities in the stomach shortly after food is taken.

When the gastric juice ceases to have any further effect upon the alimentary matter it is passed on through the py-lor'ic valve of the stomach into the first portion of the small intestine, known as the duodenum. In passing along the alimentary canal the dissolved portions of the food with the gastric juice are rapidly absorbed by the blood vessels.

When the chyme has reached the small intestine it comes in contact with an alkaline digestive fluid made up of secretions from the pancreas and from the liver. The pancreatic juice is a clear colorless fluid, viscid like the white of egg and having a distinctly alkaline reaction. Pancreatic juice acts upon the starches, upon the albuminous substances, and also upon the fats. Pancreatin, one of the principal constituents of pancreatic juice, is much more powerful in its action on starchy substances than the ptyalin* of saliva, and completes the conversion of the remaining starch into glucose. Trypsin, another ferment of the pancreatic juice, acts upon the albuminous substances as does the gastric juice. A third constituent of pancreatic juice, possessing the power of decomposing neutral fats and liberating fatty acids, exists and is known as am-y-lop'sin.

One of the most important actions which the pancreatic juice performs is the emulsification† of fats. On the whole the pancreatic juice acting in alkaline solution, emulsifies fats, dissolves albuminoid substances, and converts starches into glucose thus rendering these substances ready for absorption. The light colored emulsion thus produced is known as chyle [kile]. The daily amount of pancreatic juice is estimated at 800 grammes per day.

The bile is also discharged into the duodenum, but its exact function is yet to be determined. It is a complex product of the liver, a watery fluid of a greenish color and a faint animal odor. Its specific gravity is about 1.02. Water constitutes the greater part of bile; the remaining constituents being organic matter combined with salts of potassium, sodium, and calcium. During the intervals of digestion the bile is stored up in the gall bladder. The quantity flowing into the intestine is greatest soon after the commencement of digestion. The daily amount of bile discharged into the intestine is about 1,000 grammes.

*[Ti'a-lin.] A soluble matter forming part of the saliva.

†[E-mul-si-fi-ca'tion.] The process of making into an emulsion or mixture of liquids insoluble in one another, one being suspended in the other in minute globules, like the butter in milk.

NATIONAL AGENCIES FOR SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH.

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THE WEATHER BUREAU.

PHYSITHEISM* is the theology and religion of the barbaric world. In this religion the weather-producing agents and the phenomena of the weather are personified and deified, giving origin to a vast system of theology. The sun and the sky, the clouds and the storms, the dawn and the gloaming are worshiped by an elaborate system of ceremonies. Such is the theology and religion of barbaric man, known as physitheism, physical religion, or nature worship. The great expounder of this system of religion and of its evolution into something higher is Max Müller, the philologist* of

*[Phis'i the ism.]

*[Phi lol'o-jist.] One versed in the study of languages. An investigator of the laws, the relations, and the historical development of human speech.

Oxford, England. With a large corps of workers assisting him, he is steadily publishing a vast library on the subject. The powers and phenomena which gave birth to physical religion in Greece and Rome, in Egypt, in India, and in many other regions throughout the world, have at last become the subject of research, and the new science of meteorology has been developed.

The changes of the weather, since they affect so intimately all of the occupations and enjoyments of mankind, have, from the dawn of intelligence, received careful attention; but, though the oldest of studies, the science of the weather ranks among the youngest. In every stage of culture the first business of the morning has been to look out at the weather, and the older inhabitants, whether savage or civilized, by constant practice have often attained remarkable skill, and although their art cannot be reduced to rules, the results have often vied with those obtained by more painstaking methods.

In these later days, however, of concentration of effort and narrowing of every profession into a specialty, the weather prophets in town and country are rapidly being supplanted in public esteem by a great competitor who deals in predictions in a wholesale way, and reveals in a few brief sentences the weather not only for one locality but for a whole continent. Thus the "oldest inhabitant" finds his chief occupation and his claim to public notice taken from him by his more potent rival. Scanty thought, however, is given in general to the means by which the predictions of the Weather Bureau are prepared. Few persons are aware of the labor involved, of the number of persons who contribute their share, and of the great strides in human knowledge which render possible the comprehensive bulletins of weather changes.

The systematic study of the great atmospheric ocean which surrounds the earth, and which by its changes of currents, by ebb and flow and ceaseless turmoil, produces the effect which we know as the weather, has been carried on under one bureau or another of the general government since the early part of the century. Constant progress has been made, especially within the past two decades, within which time meteorology has come to be recognized not only as a science but as one destined to be of great importance to the health and prosperity of mankind.

Probably the first systematic observations of weather conditions carried on under the auspices of any branch of the general government over a considerable area of country were those begun under Surgeon-General Ruggles in 1819, the surgeons at each army post being required to keep certain records. These observations and many others from all sources were at a later date collected, studied, and published by officers of the Smithsonian Institution, under the direction of Professor Henry. At the same time greatly improved methods of taking observations were introduced, and individual effort was stimulated. In course of time the collecting of meteorologic data and the display of storm signals for the benefit of commerce were intrusted to the chief signal officer of the army. Year by year the importance of this work grew, until at last it overshadowed the military duties of the Signal Office, and Congress, after some hesitation, at the beginning of the present fiscal* year created the Weather Bureau in the Department of Agriculture, transferring to that bureau the meteorologic work and most of the officers identified with it. Step by step the general government has advanced in this line, from the days of fragmentary disconnected notes on the weather to a time when observations are taken at the same minute throughout the country as regularly as night and day succeed each other.

In the early part of the century many individuals and scientific societies kept records of climatic conditions, but many of these were broken and fragmentary from the fact that there was no continued stimulus. Work of this kind after some years becomes exceedingly monotonous, since it requires personal attention day by day, and, after the general facts are developed, promises to the individual little reward for his labor. Nevertheless, during the time preceding the systematic work of the Smithsonian, a mass of data was acquired throughout the country, especially in the more thickly-settled parts, where with greater wealth and leisure more attention was given to matters of scientific interest.

The collection of isolated facts, however, or of long series of measurements relating to widely-distributed phenomena, while the first step in the growth of any science, is far removed from maturity, and it may be said that up to within a few years the efforts of mankind in

* The financial year of the treasury of a government; the year for which the government accounts are made up.

this direction have been but the early attempts of infancy. Although the study of the weather has been of prime interest to man from the childhood of the race, yet his actual knowledge of the laws has been, on account of the intricacy of the phenomena, almost insignificant. In fact, not over half a generation ago it was claimed by a speaker of high education, addressing one of the learned assemblies of the country, that while mankind had made progress in nearly every direction, had begun to unravel the evolution of life and of the history of the earth itself, it was evident that an impenetrable veil concealed the causes which lead to changes in the weather. The inference was that while man might discover laws in every other direction, a superhuman power, not subordinated to law or rule, controlled the winds and clouds.

This old conception has passed away, and men look upon the weather day by day as the result of a chain of causes, whose connection, when greater knowledge is attained, can be traced as certainly as that resulting in the ebb and flow of the tides, the chief difference in the two phenomena being that in the case of the weather we have in the atmosphere a medium exceedingly light and elastic, and sensitive to the slightest force, and continually subject to almost innumerable influences arising from the heat of the sun and the motion of the earth.

The credit of advancing meteorology in this country from the mere collection of observations, of bringing some system out of chaos, and of laying the foundations of systematic research based on this conception of the possibility of understanding the operations of nature, is due largely to the Smithsonian Institution and to the stimulating influence it has given to original research.

Among the earliest publications of the Smithsonian Institution were directions designed to systematize the records of scattered students of meteorologic phenomena. Individual effort in this line was encouraged, and a system of volunteer observers was inaugurated, which has grown and continued to the present day. More than this, the study of all the meteorologic data for this continent was begun, and the best of the material was brought together, tabulated, and published, together with generalizations of the first importance. At intervals papers were published by the Smithsonian bearing upon meteorology, giving the results of the studies of A. Guiot,* Elias Loomis, Charles A. Schott, A. D. Bache,† and others.

The benefits arising from systematic observations of the weather and immediate diffusion of these facts had been for a long time appreciated when, after many efforts, early in 1870 the Congress of the United States authorized the Secretary of War to take meteorologic observations at the military stations in the interior of the continent and at other points, and to give notice on the lakes and seaboards of the approach of storms. This service was designed primarily for the benefit of commerce, and incidentally for the study of meteorology as a whole.

At the time these observations were begun meteorology had been developed to a certain degree in the United States and in Europe. In this country Loomis, Ferrel, Espy, and Redfield had investigated the general laws of storms, and sufficient progress had been made to arouse the keenest interest on the part of scientific men, for many details of great importance were then unknown. Thus the inauguration of this work was welcomed, and its operations were viewed with solicitude.

The organization of the system of observations and warnings was intrusted to General Albert J. Myer, Chief Signal Officer, and Prof. Cleveland Abbe, an eminent scholar in this department, was called to Washington to take charge of the scientific organization of the work. A division of telegrams and reports for the benefit of commerce was created. This division was gradually increased in importance, and other divisions were added, until the work completely overshadowed that of military signaling, and in the minds of the general public at least the term "Signal Service" came to convey the idea of weather reports and storm signals. The apparently anomalous condition of things by which an officer of the army charged with signaling came to be the head of a great scientific bureau studying the climate and weather is thus accounted for. In the seventies the army was scattered over a vast frontier, and the officers, intelligent men, often highly educated, were stationed at points then remote from civilization, and were in communication by telegraph or had other methods of communication with the world at large. Thus, observations could be taken systematically, the military control insuring punctuality, accuracy, and perma-

*[Gē ō. The *g* has the hard sound.]

†[Baitch.]

nence. Now, however, there is no frontier; railroads and telegraph lines traverse the whole country, and thickly-settled towns are found at short intervals throughout the length and breadth of the country; therefore the advantages of military control have lessened.

The first synchronous* readings of meteorologic instruments were taken on November 1, 1870, at 7:35 a.m., at twenty-four stations in the United States, and since that date at regular intervals these observations have been taken at the same minute all over the country, the results being known in a short time in Washington. At first, observations were taken three times a day, at seven in the morning, three in the afternoon, and eleven at night, but it has been found that results of equal value are obtained by two daily observations and reports to the office at Washington, one being at eight in the morning and the other at eight in the evening.

The importance of the study of the weather to agriculture, as well as to commerce, was first recognized in national law by the act of June 10, 1872, which provided for stations, signals, and reports upon the probable condition of the weather in the interest of agriculture. Toward this end the co-operation of agricultural societies was enlisted, and also of boards of trade and chambers of commerce throughout the country, the daily weather bulletins being prominently displayed in public places by these bodies. By all these channels the results of the work of the Signal Corps were given to the public, and its great importance was quickly recognized, resulting in wonderful expansion of popular interest and of the operations of the office itself in 1873. In this year also the *Monthly Weather Review* was published, giving in condensed form the results of the monthly observations, together with conclusions of immediate value. During the next year the body of civilian volunteer observers organized by the Smithsonian Institution was transferred to the Signal Office, and this force has been enlarged from time to time until it now numbers nearly two thousand. Reports of army post surgeons, also, were sent to the Signal Office, and every source from which information should come was carefully examined and if possible made to contribute to the supply of data.

The marine service records have been of great value not only to commerce but to meteorology as a whole, by furnishing weather data from the ocean to be combined with similar data from the land. The Hydrographic* Office of the Navy at regular intervals has sent to the chief signal officer the abstract of naval observations and such other results as are of value in recording the past condition and changes of the weather.

By the efforts of the officers of the Signal Service the careful study of the weather and recording of facts has been spread across the continent from ocean to ocean and from the Gulf of Mexico to the cool climates of Canada; and not only have observations been distributed widely, but made at altitudes from the low marshes of the coast to points above the clouds, being taken at sea level, on the summit of Mt. Washington, over 6,000 feet above the ocean, and on Pike's Peak, over 14,000 feet above the sea.

The officers and men detailed to the Signal Corps were instructed at Fort Myer, a military post in Virginia a short distance from Washington, and in the Washington office. As preparation for their duties in the Signal Corps proper they were drilled in arms and given practice in the construction of signals and telegraph lines and other operations pertaining to military signaling; and preliminary to the larger work of the office, they were instructed in the use of meteorologic instruments and the modes of observing the phenomena of the science.

The great organization built up under the direction of the chief signal officer was, on July 1, 1891, transferred to the Weather Bureau of the Agricultural Department and placed wholly under civilian control, and hereafter the science of meteorology will receive the exclusive attention of that bureau.

The principal duties of an observer at any one of the stations scattered over the country consists in noting, at eight o'clock morning and evening, the height of the barometer, the temperature, the reading of the wet-bulb thermometer, the direction and velocity of the wind, the amount of rain or snow, and many other facts bearing upon the condition of the weather. He records, for example, the greatest and least temperature of the day, the kind, amount, and movements of the clouds,

*[Sing'krō-nus.] Simultaneous, happening at the same time.

*[Hy-dro-graph'ik.] From the Greek words for water and to describe. Pertaining to the art of measuring and describing the sea, lakes, rivers, and other waters.

as well as various appearances of the atmosphere, the auroras, haze, fogs, and smokiness. If his station is near a large river, the height of the water, and perhaps its temperature, must also be reported, and if on a seacoast, the direction and character of the ocean swell.

The most important of these observations, having been recorded, are at once sent by telegraph to Washington, and a flood of messages comes into the principal office morning and evening from all parts of the country, as well as from a dozen or more stations in Canada. These messages are not sent as direct statements, but are very ingeniously condensed into a few cipher words, whose use not only requires less time and expense but avoids numerical errors. The following group of words, apparently a meaningless jumble—"Paul diction sunk Johnson imbue hersal"—conveys to the observer and to the translator at Washington a large group of facts and measurements. This message, if received during the winter, states that in St. Paul, Minnesota, the barometer stood at 29.26 inches, the thermometer four degrees below zero, the wind was northwest, the sky cloudless, that a trace of rain had fallen since the last observation, that the wind was blowing at the rate of six miles an hour, that the greatest temperature observed had been ten degrees, the dew point eighteen degrees below zero, and finally that this observation was taken at eight in the evening, and the local prediction was of fair weather.

An arrangement has been made with the telegraph companies by which these messages are taken each morning and evening at a few minutes after eight and promptly forwarded to Washington, all other telegraphic business being put aside for the time being. At about half-past eight these messages begin to accumulate, and then commences one of the most interesting operations to be seen in any of the great departments at Washington. The subdivision of the work and the perfection of the system is such that a number of different operations go on at once with speed and accuracy.

In a large room are a half dozen or more men, each with map or materials for his work before him, listening for the statements given by the translator from the telegrams which are constantly being placed in his hands. As the temperature, pressure, or other items are announced in the clear monotonous voice of the reader, each man selects the item upon which his interest is concentrated and performs some operation or makes a computation. On one side of the room are men with cases of type before them, the type consisting not of individual letters, but of the words in constant use, thus facilitating the speed and accuracy of preparation of the printed records. In another part of the room is a metal plate containing slots whose relative position is that of the various signal stations on the map of the United States. Into these slots the appropriate symbols are slipped as the result from each station is announced. Thus the tabulation and the preparation of maps and of printed matter go on quietly and rapidly, and as the last telegram is read the weather map for the day is ready for the printer, with the exception of the forecasts.

The forecast official has meanwhile been carefully watching the developments as shown by the telegrams, studying the maps of pressure, temperature, wind movement, and weather, as each is being drawn by the proper clerk, and picturing in his mind the relative location and progress of storm centers and of other phenomena, so that by the time all of the reports are in he is ready to make his forecast in the brief, conventional language adopted by the office. This is immediately placed in proper position on the weather map, and by eleven o'clock the printed maps are delivered on the railroad trains and carried by express to the various cities and towns. Meanwhile the predictions as uttered by the forecast official have been transmitted by telegraph to all parts of the Union; so that within a little over two hours from the time the observations are made the weather for the whole country has been tabulated and carefully considered, and the predictions are on their way to the great centers of population. The average time employed in making all the forecasts for the various localities throughout the country is reported to be only forty-nine minutes; thus, only about one quarter of a minute can, on the average, be given to the consideration of all the facts that modify the weather of any one locality, embracing perhaps hundreds or thousands of square miles.

Daily weather maps are printed not only at Washington but also at eighteen other cities, and from these centers they are mailed in the early morning, so as to reach localities within fifty or a hundred miles and be posted in con-

spicuous places early in the day, the Post Office Department and railroads co-operating to display these in prominent places.

The necessity of condensing the predictions for the weather into a very few words leads occasionally to a misinterpretation of the meaning, for it is difficult to give in weather of unstable conditions the exact shade of meaning that the predictor has in mind, and discredit is sometimes thrown upon work which is really good from the fact that the brief prediction is not literally fulfilled.

It is impossible to follow out all of the ramifications of the work of the Weather Bureau. The fluctuations and floods of the great western rivers are carefully reported, and the heights at various points are sent to the cities along their banks, giving the commerce on these great streams timely warning of advancing floods or of continued low water. By careful study great success has been attained in predicting the height of water several days in advance, and in the case of the great floods not only has commerce been greatly benefited, but the inhabitants along the shores have been warned to guard the levees or to remove property to points of safety.

To the transporter of perishable articles a knowledge of the probable temperature has been of the greatest value, for he can be guided in his consignments of fruits and produce, which are affected either on the one hand by extreme heat or on the other by frost.

The displaying of storm signals, which is one of the most important duties of the Weather Bureau, is by no means a simple matter or a mere piece of routine, for the greatest care and judgment must be exercised, on the one hand not to display these too often on slight provocation, on the other not to be over cautious and to omit the display until the storm is near at hand; for if the sailors see these flying for every little storm they soon begin to be heedless of them, while, on the contrary, should a severe storm visit the coast without a warning the effect on the popular mind would be even worse. To form, therefore, a definite conception of the probable extent and violence of any storm and to regulate the time and character of the signals are matters requiring great judgment and experience, as well as a special aptitude for the work.

The services of the Weather Bureau are everywhere demanded, not only for its predictions of the future but for its record of the past. Its officers are frequently summoned to appear with their records in courts of law to give evidence as to the character of the weather or of the climate, and its published data are constantly appealed to in disputes into which questions of temperature, rainfall, or other weather conditions enter. Many of the great transportation companies recognize this, and for their own protection against fraudulent claims for damages co-operate with the Weather Bureau in extending its body of volunteer observers.

The data of the Weather Bureau are also of value to engineers in planning structures to resist rain or wind, for computing the openings under bridges through which drainage of large areas must pass, and in a variety of other ways in which questions of temperature and humidity enter. In short, there is hardly a division of professional life into which these accurate records do not enter and play a part as important as in commerce and agriculture.

The crop reports of the Weather Bureau form one of the features of greatest importance in trade. These are sent out in time to reach the Monday morning papers throughout the country, and give the condition of the weather and crops in all agricultural sections, thus enabling the producer and dealer to obtain accurate ideas as to those conditions which affect prices, and in general protecting the public from imposition on the part of interested persons.

The work of the Weather Bureau is supplemented in many states by local weather services partially supported by state aid or individual effort. The co-operation between these minor bodies and the Weather Bureau is close, the national institution as a rule detailing one or more men as assistants to the state service. By this means many problems of local interest are studied, and an accurate knowledge is being obtained of the climate of these states, of the conditions which lead to agricultural prosperity, and of the relation of climate to health.

There are usually two well-marked stages in the development of a science. The first is that in which the principles and facts are purely or largely theoretic and the science must progress through the agency of men engaged in abstract investigation, who love truth for the truth's sake. The second stage is inaugurated when the science is applied to the industrial or sanitary interests of mankind.

Then the means for more vigorous research are forthcoming, the army of investigators is greatly enlarged, and the theories of the science are tested by practical results and thus corrected of errors. This second stage has at last been reached in meteorology, and the promise of a science of profound interest to the scholar and of vast usefulness to the people is being rapidly realized. While the science has not yet reached that stage when directions can be successfully given at what hours it is wise to carry an umbrella on a showery day, it has reached that stage when the great storms and the waves of intense heat or intense cold can be predicted for all the land in advance of their coming, so as to be of great value to all industries of the land. All the discomforts of the weather cannot be avoided, but great disasters can be anticipated and obviated.

THE PARASITIC ENEMIES OF CULTIVATED PLANTS.

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A STUDY of nature leads us to believe that since the very dawn of life on the earth a constant warfare has been going on between living beings of every kind. Out of this carnage and strife have arisen the almost endless forms of life we see about us on every side at the present day. The struggle is not by any means ended, nor is it being fought to-day on any radically different lines from what it was in the ages gone by. Plants growing in our meadows, woods, and pastures at the present time are being destroyed by innumerable animal and vegetable foes, while these in turn are disappearing before the relentless attacks of their enemies much as they did in the days of the ancients. That man plays an important part in this struggle, and that the outcome in many cases deeply concerns him, goes without saying. It is often a question of vital importance to him whether he can turn the battle in his favor, or, if he is the intended victim, whether he can find a means of coping successfully with his enemy.

It is of these questions we propose to speak, in the hope that what is said will lead to a better understanding of what science is doing for agriculture, horticulture, and kindred industries upon which so much of the nation's wealth and prosperity depends.

This brings us properly to the subject of this paper, i. e., the modern methods adopted by man in fighting the enemies of cultivated plants. Before taking up the question directly, however, it would perhaps be well to say something about the enemies of plants themselves, as a knowledge of what they are and in what manner they destroy our crops will make what is said about fighting them more intelligible. It would be entirely beyond the province of this paper to discuss all the enemies of plants or, for that matter, even a very small number of them. Our remarks, therefore, will be confined to two kinds of enemies which cause diseases in plants; but first it is important to get a clear knowledge of what constitutes a disease, after which it will be proper to consider the causes that may bring about such conditions. Taking up the first question we will say that any derangement of the vital functions of an organism, whether it be animal or plant, may be characterized as a disease.

Under this definition, which is rather a broad one we will admit, the plant may be diseased and still serve its purpose so far as its usefulness to man is concerned. Perhaps the best definition of the word for us to adopt, as we are not addressing our remarks to scientists, is that a disease is any change in the normal condition of a plant which results in a failure or partial failure to produce the usual quantity or quality of grain, fruit, foliage, flowers, or whatever the part used by or for man may be. Now, then, accepting the foregoing definition, let us consider for a moment some of the causes which may bring about the conditions already noted. The principal causes of the disease of plants may be divided into two classes, namely, those due to attacks of living organisms; as, for example, insects and fungi*; and those brought about by conditions in which life takes no part, as unfavorable con-

*[Fun'ji. In its singular form the word is pronounced fung'gus, the second *g* being hard.]

ditions of soil and climate, peculiar atmospheric influences, and physiological changes in the plant itself which cannot be assigned to any known cause but which, nevertheless, eventually bring about death or a sickly condition rendering it worthless to man.

As we are concerned only with the parasitic enemies of plants, we may dismiss all the others with the simple statement that the injuries they occasion are comparatively insignificant. This brings us now to the point of further dividing these enemies into vegetable parasites and animal parasites. Under the former are classed the fungi, while to the latter group may be referred the insects. It is of the fungi particularly that we propose to speak. Of course there are diseases caused by vegetable and animal parasites which cannot properly be referred to either fungi or insects, but they do not concern us here.

In these days we see, hear, and read a good deal about fungi; but, despite all this, very few people have a fair conception of what they are and in what manner they can cause the destruction of entire crops. To make these matters clear it will be necessary to devote a few words to the place in nature occupied by these plants, for such they are, after which it will be proper to say something about how they live, cause disease and death among the higher plants, and finally die themselves. To most persons fungi are the common mushrooms and toadstools which grow in pastures, on the trunks of dead trees, and other similar places. While these are true fungi they form a comparatively small part of the great group of plants, numbering over 30,000 species. By far the majority of fungi are so small that powerful microscopes are necessary to see and study them, and for this reason, perhaps, more than any other, many erroneous ideas prevail about them and the effects they produce.

To get a better idea as to what a fungus is, especially a fungus belonging to the disease-producing group, let us follow the life history of one which is perhaps familiar to all, occurring as it does on the grape which is grown everywhere in this country. The parasite under consideration is commonly known among grape-growers as "mildew," but, to use a descriptive term as well as one which will enable us to distinguish it from other members of this group, we usually speak of it as the "downy mildew of the grape."

The "downy mildew" may be found in almost any vineyard any time during the months of August and September. An examination of the leaves at this time reveals, here and there on the upper sides, pale yellow spots of various sizes and more or less circular shape. Opposite these spots, on the under side, may be seen a whitish, frost-like, downy growth which has led to the adoption of the name already mentioned. In many cases where the malady is severe the entire leaf will appear yellow and sometimes red, shriveled, and dry as if scorched by fire. This is all the eye distinguishes, so there is no wonder that so many conflicting opinions exist regarding the cause of the trouble. The microscope aided by the trained eye, however, reveals the true state of affairs which, briefly, is that the frost-like, downy growth seen on the under side of the leaf is in reality a dense forest of exceedingly delicate, colorless threads branching near the top like trees and bearing upon the tips of these branches egg-shaped bodies of the same general color and structure as the branches themselves. Further examination shows that these little tree-shaped bodies extend down into the very heart of the leaf and that they are there provided with delicate branching threads which may, for the sake of comparison, be likened to rootlets. The delicate threads are found creeping through the leaf in all directions, and, as far as they extend, the sap of the latter is destroyed. Destruction is as complete in this case as if it had been effected by heat, cold, or any other means. That the mildew is the real cause of this change in the leaf cannot be doubted.

Let us now go a little further and see what it is doing with the food, for such it is, that it obtained from the vine. By means of suckers, with which the minute threads already mentioned are provided, the juices which form the most vital part of the leaf are absorbed and used in building up the tree-like stems, branches, and other parts of the fungus. In other words, while the roots and green parts of the vine are actively at work obtaining materials from the soil and air out of which it is building up its own body, this insidious robber, the mildew, is stealing the material for its own benefit. If mildew were forced to go to the soil and air for its food it would die, and this is why it is called a parasite, having, as it does, to depend for its nourishment on material already pre-

pared for it. That the mildew is a true plant has already been noted, but a closer study of it brings out this fact more strikingly. The egg-shaped bodies already mentioned as occurring on the ends of the branches borne on the under side of the leaf are in reality reproductive organs analogous to seeds. These bodies quickly fall from their attachments and being exceedingly light they are easily carried about by winds and other agents.

Whenever they come in contact with healthy vine leaves and the proper conditions of moisture and heat are present they germinate and eventually give rise to another crop of branches, root-like threads, etc., like those already mentioned. In warm, damp weather it requires only a few days to perfect a crop of the reproductive bodies, or spores, and this often accounts for the rapid spread of the disease. At the first frost the delicate exposed portions of the fungus are killed, but in the meantime another kind of reproductive body has formed inside of the leaf, where it is protected from cold. When the foliage falls in autumn these bodies fall with it and remain safely hidden away until the following spring or summer, when they are set free by the decay of the leaf. At this time it is supposed that they germinate and give rise to the frost-like patches already described. This completes the life cycle, which in all of its details is almost as complicated as that of the grape itself.

We believe now the fact that fungi are true plants has been made clear. Further, it is hoped that what has been said about the manner in which the grape vine downy mildew lives and produces disease will make this part of the subject understood. It is only necessary now to say a few words in regard to the number of fungi affecting plants and the extent of the injuries they occasion before taking up the methods employed in fighting them. For many years it was known in a general way that fungi caused such diseases as rust, smut, blight, mildew, rot, etc., and were doing an immense amount of damage, but it was not until 1886 that any systematic endeavor was made in this country to obtain information on the subject. At this time the National Government, through its Department of Agriculture, took the matter in charge. And as a result we have at the present time some reliable data on the subject. It is estimated that at the lowest figures the annual loss in this country through the agency of these foes will exceed a hundred million dollars.

The grape alone is subject to the attacks of no less than a dozen destructive fungous pests besides half a hundred which cause more or less damage. In the case of one disease affecting this fruit, i. e., black-rot, more than 50 per cent of the crop is annually destroyed in nearly all the vine growing regions east of the Mississippi River. Grains, fruits, vegetables, and in fact nearly every plant that man cultivates, is subject to the attacks of these foes. With a view to preventing these losses the Department of Agriculture at Washington is making a scientific study of the fungi causing them. This involves first a careful investigation of the life history of each fungus in the laboratory, for it is only when we know how each lives that we can make an intelligent effort in the way of fighting it. The first thing, therefore, in our warfare against these foes is to find out where to attack them at their weakest point, and to do this requires painstaking work, often extending over a period of months and sometimes years. After we know something of the habits of a fungus we are in a position similar to that of a general who has located his foe. Plans are decided upon for the attack, which, if made at the right time and in the right place, makes victory much more certain. It must be borne in mind, however, that in conflicts of this kind man does not always come out with flying colors. Often he is utterly defeated despite the fact that he has made a hard fight, which after all makes defeat less humiliating.

In fighting the fungi two lines of attack are usually adopted, both of which, as a rule, are defensive rather than offensive. In the first method advantage is taken of the fact that at certain seasons of the year parts of the plant attacked containing the reproductive bodies of the fungus may be destroyed without injury to the plant itself. An example of this kind is found in the grape leaves affected as already described with downy mildew. It will be remembered that this fungus is carried over winter by means of reproductive bodies which are formed in late summer within the leaf, falling to the ground with the latter and escaping when the leaf decays. Now, by raking together and burning these leaves in autumn, thousands, yes, millions of these minute reproductive bodies are de-

stroyed. Of course every one destroyed in this way lessens the chances of infection the following summer; at least such would appear to be the case from a theoretical point of view. In practice, however, it is found that work of this kind alone has very little effect, simply because it is almost impossible to get concerted action on the part of those interested. One man may destroy the diseased leaves in his vineyard, but his neighbor may think that sort of thing a waste of time, and as a result the fungus spores that winter over in his place will be sufficient to infect all the vineyards for miles around.

The second plan of warfare consists in applying substances to the parts of the plants subject to attack that will destroy the spores of the fungus but not injure the host plant itself. This method is by far the most extensively used, as it renders every one independent of what his neighbor may do. Copper is at the present time the principal weapon used in this warfare. This poison in almost infinitesimal quantities is found to destroy quickly the reproductive bodies of some of the most destructive fungi and at the same time it is applied in such a way as to be perfectly harmless to the host plant and what is more important to man himself.

Probably no less than twenty-five different forms of copper are used for forming the basis of these fungicides, chief among which may be mentioned copper sulphate, or bluestone, copper carbonate, copper acetate, and copper phosphate. It is hardly necessary to go into the details of how these various substances are prepared, it being sufficient for our purpose to say that a great deal of experimental work has been necessary to insure a preparation that would fill the chief requirements, which are cheapness, ease of preparation and application, fungicidal efficiency, and adhesiveness. One of the fungicides admirably filling all the foregoing requirements is made by adding a whitewash or milk of lime to a solution of bluestone. Bluestone solution alone was tried and was found to injure the foliage badly; moreover, the first rain removed it.

Next to fungicides the manner of applying them is the most important. It has been found that unless the various solutions are finely and evenly distributed over all parts of the plant subject to attack much of their value is lost. Machines are now made especially for this work, many of them being devised and others perfected by the Agricultural Department. The machines of this kind consist mainly of a strong force pump, a reservoir for holding the solution, and a nozzle for making a spray. By means of the force pump, which may be worked either by hand or horse power, the liquid is drawn from a suitable tank and forced through a rubber hose of small bore to the spraying nozzle, where it issues forth as a fine, mist-like spray. Horse power machines embodying these various parts are now made which will thoroughly spray an acre of bearing vines in 40 or 45 minutes. To get a more definite idea as to how work of this kind is carried on let us follow for a moment one who is preparing to treat his grapes for black-rot.

In the first place, thoroughly to appreciate the importance of doing everything promptly and at the right time, the man must know that the reproductive bodies or spores of the black-rot fungus live over winter in the old berries, that these escape in spring and infect the young leaves and fruit before the former are fully grown and the latter are the size of bird-shot. Furthermore, he must know that the spores are present throughout the growing season ever ready to infect newly exposed parts. With this knowledge in his possession, it needs no great amount of argument to convince him that to be successful he must begin his treatments early—in advance of the fungus in fact—and repeat them often enough to keep his vines and the fruit thoroughly protected until harvest.

Assuming that our grape-grower is in possession of these facts, his first step will be to provide himself with suitable apparatus for the work in hand. If he has a small vineyard of 5 or 6 acres, a hand machine in the shape of a knapsack pump will in all probability be used. Such a machine may now be procured for a few dollars, and with it a vineyard of 5 or 6 acres can be thoroughly sprayed in a day and a half. The question of a machine being settled, the fungicide or solution to be used is the next important matter to consider. If thoroughly posted, he will be aware that of the numerous preparations used only three or four can be relied on at all times. One of these he decides upon, so there is nothing further to do but to lay in his stock of chemicals, and wait until the foliage is about half grown, or say 10 or 12 days before the vines blossom. The chem-

icals needed for his work are strong aqua ammonia and carbonate of copper, the latter being a fine bluish-green powder which may be obtained from almost any drug store. The proper time having arrived for making the first spraying, the chemicals, together with two or three barrels of water, the spraying machine, etc., are taken into the field. Five ounces of the carbonate of copper are then weighed out and dissolved in three pints of ammonia. This solution is poured into a barrel of water and is then ready to be applied. The pump is now brought into play, the reservoir being first filled and then taken upon the back, knapsack fashion. By means of the right hand the pump is worked bellows fashion, over the right shoulder. This forces the liquid out through the hose and nozzle on the left side. The nozzle is, therefore, placed in the left hand, and by means of it the spray is directed over the vine. The entire cost of treating an acre as here described will not exceed one dollar. About the time the berries are forming another spraying should be made and this should be repeated every twelve or fourteen days until five or six applications, costing about one dollar each, have been put on. If the work has been carefully done, comparatively few berries will rot, and this in badly infected regions means a profit of from 200 to 400 per cent on the amount expended in the work of spraying. This is only one example of how the fight is made against foes of this kind. Of course the method will vary somewhat with each disease. It will be seen, we believe, that the laboratory work plays an important part in every step taken in the field. It is this work that has taught us the habits of the fungus, the time to make the treatments, and the physiological effects of these on both fungus and host.

Brief reference has already been made to some of the practical results of this work. To bring out this matter more clearly, however, we will cite a few facts bearing on this subject which have accumulated within the past two years. In the past there has been a tendency to belittle the scientific work of the Department of Agriculture, especially in its bearing upon practical farming and fruit growing. It is often claimed that much of the money expended by this branch of the Government does little toward advancing the cause of the tiller of the soil. Let us then look at this matter of investigating plant diseases from a dollars-and-cents point of view. The Department expends for work of this kind about $20,000 annually. It is known from careful and reliable data collected in 1890 that about 5,000 grape-growers in this country treated their vines in accordance with the directions issued by the Department. Of these only 10 per cent met with indifferent success. The remainder, or about 4,500, estimated the increase in their crop as a result of the treatments all the way from 15 to 80 per cent. From a money point of view this meant for some as high as $2,000, while for others the amount was as low as $10; the average, however, is about $50. But let us put it at the very lowest figure, say half this amount, or $25 profit for each of the 4,500 who used the remedies successfully; this will give us a total profit of $112,500, or nearly six times the amount expended by the Department in the entire work. It must be remembered that this is for only one disease. Fully as good a showing could be made with others, such as potato rot, apple and pear scab, pear, plum, and cherry leaf-blight, etc.

A few words now in regard to the modern method of warfare against the insect enemies of plants. People as a rule are sufficiently familiar with the manner in which insects cause the loss of crops to know that in fighting them two methods may be adopted, namely, prevention and cure. By prevention is meant such means as stamping out these pests before they have an opportunity of spreading; taking advantage of their habits, and planting such crops as they are likely to destroy at times when they can do the least damage, and other similar means. The importance of work of this kind cannot be overestimated, as is shown by a case in New England which is now attracting widespread attention. A few years ago there was introduced into Massachusetts an insect from Europe which was thought to have value as a silk producer. This insect, known as the gypsy moth, already had a bad reputation; but despite this, it was brought over here and, notwithstanding precautions were taken to keep it within bounds, it got away and soon began to multiply rapidly, carrying destruction to vegetation of nearly all kinds wherever it went. It is probable that by prompt and energetic action the foe could easily have been wiped out in its incipiency, but it seems that matters were allowed to take their own course. so that now the pest

covers a territory of at least fifty miles square. At last the people of Massachusetts have their eyes open to the serious nature of the matter, and have gone to work in earnest to wipe out the pest. Last year $50,000 was expended in the work alone and even more will be expended this season.

The curative method of dealing with these foes resolves itself into two distinct lines: first, that of killing the pests outright, such as by hand picking, mechanical devices, applications of poisonous liquids, powders, etc.; and, second, the introduction and encouragement of their material enemies mainly in the shape of insects themselves. Thanks to the efforts of the National as well as State Governments, the first method, and especially the application of poisons such as Paris green, London purple, etc., is in a general way now pretty well understood. In fact, it does not seem like an exaggeration to say that the money saved each year to the husbandmen of this country by work of this kind is more than enough to pay the total expense of the Department of Agriculture and perhaps the expenses of a large number of the State Experiment Stations could also be included.

As regards the natural enemies or predaceous insects, there is an immense field for the scientist, and he has not been slow to enter it. Only a short time ago it was thought that the orange industry of California, which, as every one knows, is worth millions of dollars to the state, would be totally destroyed by a little insignificant scale insect imported through carelessness from Australia. All efforts to eradicate the pest by poisons and similar treatments proved fruitless, so that as a last resort an endeavor was made to bring from Australia some of its insect foes. At last one was found, and mainly through the efforts of the Department of Agriculture it was brought to California, bred, and liberated. The result has been akin to magic, for where a short time ago millions of these scale pests were sapping the life from the trees, there is scarcely one to be found to-day. The orange industry of California has been saved, and no doubt this one act justifies every cent that will be expended for economic entomology for years to come.

Thus the warfare goes on, and if this hasty glimpse of the manner in which it is conducted shall suffice to convince a few of our readers that science is not standing idly by in the matter, we shall feel that our effort has not been in vain.

End of Required Reading for December.

CHRISTMAS BELLS.

BY JESSIE F. O'DONNELL.

WHEN Christmas bells begin to ring,
The winds repeat the music rare;
The snowflakes tremble in the air;
And golden stars are watching where
In frosty towers the great bells swing;—
When Christmas chimes begin to ring.

When Christmas bells begin to ring
Throughout the white and frozen street,
With silver voices falling sweet,
The children laugh; and comrades greet;
And sleigh bells shake their merry string;—
When Christmas chimes begin to ring.

When Christmas bells begin to ring,
Unheard, the lilies join the chime;
The poppy's scarlet bells keep time;
The snowdrops tinkle of the spring;—
When Christmas chimes begin to ring.

THE SCOTTISH LANGUAGE.

BY REV. WM. WYE SMITH.

SINCE probably every part of Great Britain has been peopled or overrun at various times by different nations, it well may be supposed that the language spoken is not in all cases identical. There is no conquest or immigration but leaves some words belonging to the newcomers. Language, however, is very persistent about retaining its place, and unless the country is rendered a desert, or unless it is very sparse of inhabitants, and is deluged with the sudden influx of a large population, the old language is sure to retain its place, merely allowing itself to be enriched with a few names of articles, persons, and the like, or words for abstract ideas, found to be actually needed. The Goths did not impress their language upon Italy, nor the Franks upon Gaul; but both learned (at least their children soon did) the language of the conquered.

The following two circumstances are noticed by Gibbon: When the Goths first came down from the forests of Germany into Italy, the Romans asked them who they were. They answered, "The Long-Beards." These words were perfectly unintelligible to Latin-speaking people. They had not the ringing sound of ng in Latin, at all, and it seemed to them a barbarous sound. They did not know what "beard" was. To this day, it is pronounced in Scotch as "baird"; and no doubt was so pronounced by the old Goths. The Romans, supposing that "Long-baird" was the name of the nationality, instead of merely a facetious description of themselves, and being unable to pronounce it, called them "Lombards." And as Lombards the Long-Beards flourish in history; and one of the fairest portions of Italy is called Lombardy to this day.

Again, when another branch of these same (English-speaking!) Goths came in contact with the Latinized Gauls in France, the Roman authorities asked them who they were. "We are All-men," they said, meaning that they had a great variety of tribes among them, all confederated together. But "All-men" was quite unintelligible to the Romans. As in the other case, they thought it the proper name of the people. So they called the country over the Rhine, "Allemania"; and to this day the French name for Germany is Allemagne.

The language of Scotland being different from England, points to a different origin of the people. I shall not speak much of the Highlanders, for no one doubts that they are Celtic. I shall chiefly consider the Lowlanders, so-called, the people who speak the Broad Scotch. South of the Forth they are doubtless of considerably mixed blood; but whether south or north of the Forth, the chief part of their blood is Gothic.

Since the days when the Scots and Piks (I do not say Picts, for that is merely a Latinized misspelling) were the inhabitants of Caledonia, there have been no wholesale conquests nor wholesale immigrations. The people are now, mainly, the descendants of the people then. What became of the Piks? If they were exterminated by the Scots (as some argue), whence came the inhabitants of the eastern and southern counties? for they are not Gaelic, nor is it conceivable that they ever spoke the Gaelic language. The language is Gothic. The people are Gothic, of the Northern, or Scandinavian, strain. Every Scotchman who has watched the landing of Norwegian immigrants has felt, somehow, that they were kin to him in looks and build as well as in manners and language.

The Piks were the Lowland Scotch. The Scots were Celts, originally from Ireland. The Scots and Piks were not always at war with each other—indeed their relations seem on the whole to have been somewhat amicable, though there appears to have been a time of prolonged hostility before the union of the kingdoms.

In 843, Kenneth MacAlpine, "Kenneth the Hardy," became sole king. The belief of some, that the whole nation spoke Gaelic till the reign of Malcolm Canmore, "Malcolm of the Big Head," is easily accounted for, when we remember that the court was Scottish, and not Pictish, for two hundred years; just as the Norman kings of England held their court in Norman-French for several generations. Malcolm Canmore, the son of Shakspere's "Duncan," married a Saxon

princess of England. Two years after the Battle of Hastings, Edgar, the Saxon heir to the English crown, with his mother and two sisters, came to Scotland for safety and shelter. Malcolm welcomed the fugitives, and shortly after married one of them—six hundred years afterwards canonized by the Pope as Saint Margaret. The English undoubtedly, even under the Saxon rule, were far in advance of the Scotch in civilization and refinement; and Margaret certainly deserves the credit of introducing many refinements into the country, although they were accompanied by many superstitious observances. As in England there are now many thousand Victorias, whereas a hundred years ago there probably was not one, so from the day that Margaret became the queen, Margarets began to abound in Scotland. At the present day there are more Margarets in Scotland than any other one female name.

From the day he began to court Margaret, he of the Big Head began to learn English. Was anything more natural? No doubt the court was already a sort of polyglot (or at least a diaglot) arrangement; and there was not half the difference then between the Saxon spoken on the Thames and the Scotch spoken on the Tay, that there is now between modern classic English and the modern Scotch, that is the Scotch of Burns and Scott. So when Malcolm began to speak English, he really spoke Scotch; and all the subordinates about the court would be glad to think they could now indulge in the language they knew best. For the kings of the Scots becoming also the kings of the Piks, undoubtedly acquired a higher civilization than before, and gradually left behind them all that was distinctively Scottish—in the old sense of the word—and, as we have seen, at last the language itself. It was exactly the same, when, more than five centuries later, the Scottish court migrated to England. The Stuarts affected to become more English than the English themselves; and except when they wanted men to help them, never visited or paid the least attention to Scotland.

The notion formerly entertained, that (somehow or other—nobody knew how) the Piks were exterminated by the Scots, cannot bear the least critical and historical sifting. If the Piks were exterminated, whence came the new inhabitants? Not from the Scots; else we would find them speaking Gaelic and not Broad Scotch. Not from Norway; for so complete a re-peopling of a country would, in those days, have carried with it conquest and royal rule. Besides, history is entirely silent on the subject. No; the Piks were always there; and after they became one with the Scots in government, in fact, after they had captured the Scottish court, they just continued occupying the same part of the country and speaking the same language as before.

As Dr. Johnson is the father of English lexicography, so Dr. Jamieson, a Presbyterian dissenting minister of the close of the last century, is the great authority on Scotch words. Dr. Jamieson died in Edinburgh, in 1838. He met, many years before, a learned professor from Copenhagen, who told him that he (the professor) had been greatly interested in collecting Scotch words. Dr. Jamieson had the idea that Scotch was only a corrupt dialect of the English; and said so. But Prof. Thorbrelin replied, "The language of your country is more ancient than that of England. I have now spent four months in Scotland, and I have met with between three and four hundred words purely Gothic, which were never used in Anglo-Saxon. You will admit that I am pretty well acquainted with Gothic; I am a Goth, a native of Iceland, the inhabitants of which are an unmixed race, who speak the same language which their ancestors brought from Norway a thousand years ago. All or most of the words which I have noted down are familiar to me in my native land. If you do not find out the sense of some of the terms which strike you as singular, send them to me, and I am pretty certain I shall be able to explain them to you."

Dr. Jamieson began at first merely to oblige the learned stranger, but became gradually interested in the work, and, years after, it resulted in his Scottish Dictionary, the standard work on the subject.

But it was Burns who really fixed the Scottish language. Just as Petrarch and Dante made the dialect of Florence the classical dialect of the much varied Italian, and as Luther, by his translation of the Bible, made the Saxon for all time the literary dialect of the German, so Robert Burns, coming in the second generation after the union of the kingdoms, exalted his mother tongue to a place among the acknowledged languages of the time. There is not much difference between it and the Border dialect of Scott; very much

more difference is observable between it, and the dialect of the North, about Aberdeen. No Aberdonian, writing his peculiar dialect, could now hope to have the world accept his productions as Scotch, except on the hard condition of coming forward with a commanding genius that would eclipse that of Burns.

Prof. Blackie, of Edinburgh, argues that Scotch ought to be retained as the song dialect of the language. And in point of fact, there is an incomparable body of Scottish song in existence, such as no other land can exhibit. It is a little bit of useful but neglected philosophy, that if you think long enough on any subject, you will be sure to get some light on it, and if you talk long enough on any subject, some one will listen to you. So Prof. Blackie has lectured his countrymen and countrywomen for a lifetime, about letting their native songs be supplanted by fashionable English twaddle; and in his old age he has the satisfaction of seeing a reaction setting in, and drawing-rooms in Scotland again welcoming Scottish song and music. With the common people these songs were always popular. The Scottish nobility and aristocracy never were national, in the best sense of the word. Scarcely any of them assisted Wallace and Bruce (until the latter had established himself); none of them took up the cause of the Covenanters; almost to a man they are wedded to Episcopacy; and when, on the anniversary of the battle, a hundred thousand workingmen assembled in 1889 to set up a great iron mast for a flag-pole where Bruce unfurled his banner at Bannockburn in 1314, there was not a single Scottish titled person on the ground.

The people, the rank and file of the nation, are very democratic. They have never waited for the government or the nobility or the rich to do anything for them,—they do it themselves. And in their literature this independence continually asserts itself. Outside of London, Edinburgh and Glasgow are the only places that have been able to assume and hold a position as literary centers. Where do Liverpool, Bristol, Manchester, Birmingham, York, stand, as literary centers? Nowhere. Yet the others are larger, and York is older than Edinburgh; and Liverpool aspires to rival Glasgow on every other ground. The difference is in the people. The Scotchman is educated. He knows books. He thinks. It is a pity he is so reserved, and speaks so little, for speech helps thought to correct itself. He feels that he must push his own way in the world. He has had a long line of ancestors behind him with stiff backbones. He has seen the laverock soar and heard him sing, and he could not, if he would, down the singing note within him.

"What do you think of this?" said an Englishman, the moment I was introduced to him, as he pulled a manuscript poem out of his pocket. "You are a Scotchman; every Scotchman is a lover of poetry, and every tenth man is a poet himself!" And my English friend was measurably right.

It is very noticeable that of late years, in the best French-and-English lexicons a great number of Scotch words are now included. Strange to say, it is the only manner in which an important branch of the language is given a place in the curriculum of our schools. Many Scotch words have found their way into English in our day. Raid and rink are in daily use; but nobody heard them in English a generation ago. Rive, flit, filly, tramp, ted, byre, blythe, bonny, cairn, glint, glib, knoll, porridge, tawse, tryst, may be given as words more or less incorporated into our noble English speech, and generally understood. There is a tendency nowadays to enrich the language from every source; and it would be strange indeed, if the Scotch were overlooked.

There are a number of Scotch words which have an obscure root yet remaining in English. Ask an American boy or girl what a gird is, and we should probably get no right answer. Yet we say girdle and girded. A gird is a hoop. What is couthie? a beautiful word, with a beautiful meaning. Yet we say uncouth, meaning rude, rough, unshaped. Couth [kooth] or couthie is pleasant, comfortable, agreeable.

The Scotch trilling of the r, the deepening of the sound of the vowels, and several other things will not be well attained by us on this side the Atlantic, and yet a sufficient familiarity with Scottish pronunciation and idioms to enable one to sing an easy Scotch song or relate a Scotch anecdote, is a qualification to which many a one would like to aspire.

We must first get right with the a and the o. If the reader will carefully practice the sound, he will find that the long sound of o in English, is a compound sound. It begins with o and ends with oo. The long o in Scotch, is a simple sound. It does not end in oo. There is no movement of the mouth dur-

ing the sounding of it. There is some advantage in having the English sound; it widens the scope of our pronunciation. An average Scotchman cannot make (to our ears, and usually not to his own) any distinction between the sound of clock and cloak. He learns the English o; but seldom after he is grown up.

Then the long a. Here again, the English is a compound sound; it begins with a, and ends with e: a-e. The Scotch is a simple sound; a without the e; no moving of the vocal organs while pronouncing it. Having mastered these two sounds, the reader has made a good point in trying to pronounce Scotch.

The elisions require care. In a', ba', fa', etc., the vowel is pronounced exactly as if the consonant were not dropped; all, ball, etc. The ringing sound at the end of words ending in ing, is not much heard in Scotch. Feeling becomes feelin'; only the i sounds to us like ee. Try to keep the accent on the first syllable, and say feeleen. Such would be the Scotch sound. In relating a Scotch anecdote, people sometimes write and speak the word minister as meenister. In this case, it is the wrong i that is changed into ee. Preserve the accent on the first syllable and say men-ee-ster. You have still the last syllable wrong. You called it stur. The er there and almost everywhere in Scotch, has the pure sound of the short e, as found in merry.

One word about gutterals. "These have all been discarded from the English language," so everybody says. I am a Scotchman, and I beg to dissent. You say "Pooh!" and when you pronounce it you don't say "poo." You add the gutteral sound. Now try the beautiful Scotch word sough, "the sough o' the sea." It is a perfect rhyme for pooh. All words ending in igh or ich, ight or icht, are gutterals. Any one learning German will soon acquire the sound.

These, with a little attention to the French sound of the u, in a large class of words, such as guid, bluid, cuit, schule, etc., will do much to take off the awkwardness of having to read a page of Burns or Scott or venturing on a little Scottish song.

GOOD MANNERS FOR YOUNG PEOPLE.

BY THEODORE TEMPLE.

THE other evening I went to a musical entertainment at the house of a gentleman in New York. The performers were all very young people, boys and girls, and the master of ceremonies on the occasion was my host's son, a lad of sixteen years of age, who is fitting himself for college at a school of the vicinity. Much of the music executed was of a difficult kind, and the program was varied with piano playing, singing, the performances of a stringed quartet, and solos on the flute and violin. The whole was remarkably good; but I was not surprised at that, for I know how thoroughly young people are trained in music at this period and how highly cultivated their musical taste has become. Neither was I surprised to find these schoolgirls going through their parts in the concert with great self-possession and a grace that was very pleasant to behold; for usually girls have far more command of themselves under such circumstances than we expect to see displayed by their brothers. What surprised me was the complete absence of self-consciousness and the awkwardness it breeds, in the bearing of the boyish master of ceremonies.

As there was no printed program of the concert, he rose before the audience, which crowded the drawing room, and, with entire ease and appropriate dignity, announced very simply and clearly each piece of music which was to be rendered. Not a trace of embarrassment appeared in the lad. Theodore Thomas could not have stood up before the assembly with more grace and self-possession. Yet there was nothing in his bearing which savored of undue assurance. It exhibited rather a forgetfulness of self and a disposition to render such assistance in the entertainment as lay in his power. I was delighted with the carriage of the lad and, as I have said, was surprised at it.

When the concert was over, I asked his father how it happened that so young a fellow was equal to such an emergency, saying that when we were of that age boys were not thus self-possessed. He answered by explaining

that at the school to which his son went it was a part of the plan of instruction to accustom the boys to expressing their thoughts on their feet and in the presence of the whole body of pupils. Each boy of the classes beyond the lowest was called upon to rise and explain extemporaneously and as simply and directly as he could, some subject of which he had studied, narrate some incident of history, or give a brief biographical sketch of some historical character or personage. Thus he acquired not only the art of expression in speech, but also self-command in the presence of an audience. He learned to arrange facts in an orderly sequence, the accuracy of his knowledge was subjected to a severe test, his memory was cultivated, and habitual experience as a speaker overcame any awkwardness of bearing before an audience. He learned to talk to a crowd as well, as easily, and as gracefully as if he were conversing with a single listener.

If my host's son is a fair example of the effect produced on a lad by that practice, it is a practice well worth imitation. The art of talking as fluently and gracefully while standing before many people as when seated with a single interlocutor is always an enviable possession. Anything that tends to overcome self-consciousness and to induce self-forgetfulness is a valuable contribution to the art and science of education. The races which are the most graceful in manner are those that are most natural and spontaneous in the expression of themselves; the Latin races for example, the Italians more especially. Even an Italian beggar will show a freedom from self-consciousness akin to high breeding. The Japanese also have this charm of manner to a very marked degree. They are the gentlest and the most gracious of people, so that after living among them for several years a distinguished Englishman of rank, returning to his own country, declared that the English manners seemed to him coarse and rude, awkward and forbidding by comparison.

Therein lies the whole secret of good manners. They are the manners which most truly are the outward and visible signs of an inward and spiritual grace. Undoubtedly there may be outward grace without the indwelling spirit to give it illumination; but it is spurious and counterfeit, superficial and deceitful. It may be acquired, while really good manners must come from the goodness within. Yet good people, possessed of this inward and spiritual grace, are not always well-mannered. Why is it? It is because they do not let the spirit within give itself spontaneous expression. They are awkward because they are afraid of criticism, and simplicity, the basis of all good manners, departs and artificiality succeeds. A man whose manners may be self-possessed and dignified when he is in his shop and his work-day clothes will be embarrassed and clumsy in his behavior when he is in his Sunday best and in strange company and amid unaccustomed surroundings. In the one place the outward sign is a true indication of the spiritual grace within. In the other the inward grace has no expression in the outward manner, which is artificial only, and being so and misrepresenting the true quality of the man, it serves to increase his awkwardness and his self-dissatisfaction. He is not himself as he really is, but is assuming a character which he plays badly.

In former days great formality of manners prevailed. Everybody was playing a part. Artificiality was the rule and pomposity was not infrequent. The man was posing, trying to make an impression, and this implied that he was self-conscious. But now all that has passed away. Simplicity and naturalness of manners are the marks of high-breeding. Beau Brummel, instead of being a model, would be a laughingstock at this period. Anybody who seeks to attract attention to himself, to assume an attitude at all studied, to thrust forward his personality, to make a display of what he regards as fine manners, is set down as deficient in the quality essential to really good manners. They must be spontaneous, or at least seem to be so; and the greater the familiarity of men and women with cultivated people, and the larger the measure of their self-forgetfulness, the simpler and the more natural their manners will be. The secret is to learn to be as much at ease in a crowd as you are in your own home and with your own family; in other words, to be natural. Of course there are little proprieties that must be observed, polish is desirable, and graciousness is requisite, but they are all acquirable.

Mr. Ward McAllister has written a very silly book about the ways, the manners, the etiquette, and the doings of the people who are now called, humorously, the Four Hundred of New York. Really there is no such social circle as the Four Hundred in New York. There is no society which is limited numer-

ically, whose metes and bounds are fixed and always determinable. The society of which this man writes is constantly changing, old members dropping out and new members coming in. Its chief distinction comes from the wealth which enables it to indulge in luxury and luxurious and costly pleasures beyond the reach of the society of wealth in New York of the days antecedent to the Civil War and up to a period much more recent. Wealth unquestionably breeds a certain quality of refinement. The families of its possessors are able to obtain polite accomplishments, to travel, to enjoy leisure in which to acquire polish, and to draw about them a society of outward elegance and in which individuals of real and true refinement and high and genuine and deep-seated cultivation may be included. They can afford to make a business of pleasure, of entertaining, and of going to entertainments; and by long practice they learn to do the business well. Certainly they ought to become experts at it, so far as mere practice of the social art can make them so.

Yet very few of those people whom Mr. McAllister extols are really high bred and of great distinction of manners and character. Very few of them possess the social art to any degree of perfection. Many of them are bad in their manners. They are generally notable for hardness of heart and a repulsive selfishness. They lack true graciousness, gentle consideration, and the other marks of high breeding; the indications of the inward and spiritual grace which is the source and fountain of the only manners which deserve to be called good. Everybody for himself and the devil take the hindmost, is the rule and motto of that society. The pursuit of pleasure for itself is its one object. Whosoever can contribute to its enjoyment and multiply its luxuries is welcome in its ranks. Whosoever has nothing to bring as the price of his admission is not wanted. It is all give and take; tit for tat; one dinner and one ball create the obligation to give others in return. If a lady gives two or three dinners a week she expects that the responsive dinners of her guests will afford her entertainment for the other evenings of the season of fashion. She invites in order to be invited, and when her invitations to other houses cease, the invitations she sends out to them cease also. Therefore the so-called Four Hundred make up a circle of continually changing elements and proportions. There is nothing mysterious about it; there is very little that is beautiful and worthy of admiration about it. Its round of gayeties grows monotonous, for there is small chance for variety; from one end of one season to the other the people to be entertained are the same, though as years go by, death takes away veterans or good fortune brings in recruits. It is a circle small enough and narrow enough to be subject to the pettiness of spirit which sometimes disfigures the society or the "sets" of a village. It is not the exemplar and the school of the best manners.

As to its etiquette, it is about the same as any etiquette, which is merely the conventional arrangement of the methods and details of social intercourse under the compulsion of circumstances. There must be rules or there will be confusion; but they are readily learned by anybody who has occasion to put them into practice. If you don't know the etiquette of a place, for etiquette is different in different towns, in Washington from what it is in New York for instance, have no hesitation about confessing your ignorance and asking for information. Never be afraid of society, no matter how high its pretensions. Be your natural self and take no thought of the consequences. Other people don't observe you half as much as you imagine. In a crowd the truth is that you are likely to be forgotten, to pass unnoticed. Of course, if you are not rich enough to dress as the society of the rich requires, keep out of that society. You can find your own place, and you will enjoy it more; nay, you will enjoy it only, for in the other you can have no pleasure at all.

Many young people are distressed because they fear they may not make an exhibition of themselves in society which represents their real value. They are troubled lest they shall be misunderstood, put down lower than they belong, not rated high enough. Hence they make an effort to convince those whom they meet that they are of some consequence. But all that is a waste of energy, of thought, anxiety, and ambition. It fails of its purpose and is likely to produce the very effect which it seeks to prevent. It generates a self-consciousness that breeds embarrassment in turn, and consequent inability to make the desired revelation and create the hoped-for impression.

Learn to forget all about yourself, how you

appear, what other people may be thinking of you; and then they will see you as you really are, and as you really are you are a far more engaging and interesting individual than you can be when thoughts of the show you are making of yourself destroy your natural manner and expression. When a hen goes among a crowd of hens in the barnyard, she pecks away after her food as if no one else was about. She does not put on company manners. She isn't disturbed about the appearance she makes. The rest of the hens may take her as they choose; she doesn't care so long as she knows she is behaving herself in the fashion proper for a hen. And the hen furnishes a lesson therein for men and women both. They are too much afraid of each other. They are not natural when they are in company.

Never attempt to parade in society any knowledge or other acquisition that you have. Your possessions are a store to be drawn upon not for self-display, but for the general benefit, as they are demanded; and that you have valuable moral and intellectual treasures will be discovered without your seeking to attract attention to them of yourself. In other words, selfishness, self-seeking, and obtrusiveness are not signs of the inward and spiritual grace which underlies good manners. People are much more nearly estimated at their true value than the young and inexperienced are disposed to think. It often happens that a young man or a young woman will overrate the importance of acquirements, deeming them rare and exceptional, when really they are common. Young people, too, do not always or often put a high enough estimate on the sagacity and the discernment which may not be accompanied by acquirements and accomplishments they themselves possess, important though these may be.

A man may not even know how to read or write, and yet be a very wise man. Wisdom came before Cadmus. One of the most sagacious financiers and directors of great enterprises in New York can barely write his name. Of course, illiteracy is a sad misfortune, and in these days and in this country it is usually a sign of a misspent youth, if it is found among those reared here. It is also dangerous in a republic ruled by its citizens. But, after all, one man's natural ability developed by experience, may be worth ten other men's merely acquired knowledge. Your fathers and mothers may not have studied so many books as you, and yet they may be wiser than you will ever become. Be modest, therefore, about your scholastic acquirements, thinking rather of the much you have to learn than of the little you already have learned.

Another valuable, profitable, and admirable quality in youth is respect for those who are older, if they are entitled to respect. It does not require that youth should keep itself within the limitations of older people. Every generation should push ahead of the preceding. Youth ought not to be conservative like age. It can afford to take greater ventures, for it has a longer time before it, and its own conservatism will come soon enough in the natural operations of the laws of growth and experience. The world would be stagnant without the audacity, the restlessness, the irreverence for mere precedent, and desire for the new instead of veneration for the old which distinguish youth. But the impression a young man or a young woman produces on older people has very much to do with success in life. It is an old saying that to court a girl to the best purpose a young fellow must court the favor of her mother. How young people stand in the regard of their elders does much to determine the success of their careers. Consideration and respect may yield a harvest of unexpected richness. Indignity and indifference may produce a heavy crop of thorns and thistles.

A young man of New York once fell by chance into the society of an infirm old man. They were fellow travelers, and the old man ventured to ask from the young some assistance along his way, not of money, but of good-will. It invoked a slight amount of annoyance to the young man, took up a little of his time, and may have bored him. Perhaps the old man was not as interesting to him as he was to the old man. Probably he was not. Probably a companion nearer his own age and not so infirm would have been more agreeable. Besides, there was nothing to indicate in the appearance of the old man that he was a person of more than ordinary consequence. Intelligent he was and full of valuable information and sagacious observation, a gentleman, obviously. Many a young fellow would have hurried off to the smoking car and left him to take care of himself and his infirmities. This young man was of a better spirit, and instinctively, without thought of profit for himself, made himself

agreeable to his older companion, listened to him with respect, treated him with the consideration due his age and character, and rendered him needed service. Ten or fifteen years after, the young man, who was then supporting himself as a clerk, received notice from a firm of lawyers that he had been made the heir to the American possessions of this old man, who was a Scotchman and who had died not long before. Supposing that it was a small return for a small favor, the young clerk reported to the lawyers. The property left him was worth $400,000. It is a true story. The young man is now dead, but his family were raised from poverty to wealth by this windfall, and to-day they are enjoying the unlooked-for fortune.

I do not tell this story to incite young men to hunt for fortune by the same method. If this young man had had any such object in his considerate attentions and they had not sprung from kindness of disposition that was genuine and respect for character and dignity which was innate and real, he would never have got his magnificent reward, for the old man was a keen judge of character. It does teach, however, that the regard of older people is valuable to the young. It may express itself only in a word of commendation said at the right time and in the right way to the right person, but it tells. Civility never goes amiss. A young girl who looks on old married men as not worth her consideration or her gracious courtesy, is likely to find out that she has made a sad mistake. A young man who has no attentions to bestow on women who have passed the age which he thinks is alone attractive, may find that he has lost valuable allies in his career.

The sum and substance of what I have written is that the inward and spiritual grace from which comes the illumination of character is the richest possession to which we can attain.

MODERN TREATMENT FOR INSANITY.

BY C. R. HAMMERTON.

UNTIL late in the present century humanity has been almost powerless in dealing with the curse of insanity. It has been almost the last of the great evils which afflict the race with which civilization has attempted to cope. The gigantic problem which it presents to the forces of reason and knowledge may never be solved, but enough has already been accomplished to admit a bright ray of hope into the most darksome mysteries of the institutions where thousands of blighted lives now drag out a soulless existence.

Less than two decades past have witnessed a radical change in the treatment of insanity by the most enlightened managers of public and private asylums. The nature of the change is signified by the abandonment of that word "asylum," and the designation of the institutions as hospitals for the treatment of mental diseases. The state of New York has been the leader in this line of progress. Two years ago all the public insane asylums in that state disappeared and hospitals took their places. And with the name is fast disappearing the involuntary horror with which such institutions are popularly regarded. These hospitals are no longer places of mere confinement and violent restraint. Hope has entered their doors and it is fast driving out despair. The afflicted may go there now, not to a living death but to be cured.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN for August I endeavored to show that the lingering popular prejudice against resort to hospital treatment in cases of injury or serious sickness was without reason or justice. Precisely the same thing is true of the best modern hospitals for the treatment of the insane. The prejudice against these institutions is more deeply rooted than that which exists against public measures for dealing with any other weakness of humanity. There has been in the past cruel reason for this prejudice. Insane asylums were for centuries far worse than penal institutions. Commitment to them meant an almost inevitable doom. Acute cases were almost sure to become chronic and hopeful cases hopeless. Systematic treatment for the cure of mental disease was scarcely attempted in public asylums.

All this has been changed by "the hospital idea." The insane man is now regarded

and treated as a sick man, whose condition can at least be improved by skillful care and treatment. The success which has come with the adoption of modern methods is not the result of any great discoveries in medicine or therapeutics. It is merely the triumph of common sense as applied to the treatment of mental maladies. No specific for the cure of insanity has been discovered. It is safe to say that none will ever be found.

Most people have a vague idea that insanity is on the increase, that frequent mental collapse is the penalty of the distracting hurly-burly of latter-day civilization. Not so. The closer statistics of to-day show a slight proportionate increase in the prevalence of mental diseases over a generation or two ago, but the adoption of rational methods of treatment has probably more than offset the growing evil. It is true, though a paradox, that the "high pressure" living of to-day is not the chief or principal cause of insanity. Here in America insanity is far more common among foreign than among native born people. In one sense our rapid American ways may be responsible for this. The foreign immigrant from the farm in Italy or Ireland is unable to adapt himself to the novelty, excitement, and distractions of American city life, and his brain is turned. It is not hard work and great and manifold responsibilities that drive men mad. It is worry. As long as a man is able to compass all the duties of life without worrying, he has little to fear. When a man begins to worry then his reserve force of mental energy begins to diminish. Then come nervous exhaustion and all the train of mental dangers that he has most to fear. The capacity of the human brain to adjust itself to new conditions seems limitless. Relatively we have no more brain-racking conditions about us to-day than did our great grandfathers. Their lives were for them as full of care, of excitement, of responsibility, as ours are for us.

The insane are classed pretty much alike in the public mind. It is known in a general way that their delusions cover the widest range, but most people imagine that all proper subjects for confinement in an asylum are much of the time raving maniacs with perhaps intervals of calmness when insanity may not be apparent. As a matter of fact there are more varieties of brain disease than there are of disease of the heart or lungs or stomach. The treatment required varies likewise, and by treatment is meant physical surroundings, diet, and manner of life, more than medication. The duty of society to the mental sufferer who has a chance of recovery and who is still keenly sensitive to surrounding influences, is very different from that due to the incurable imbecile or paretic whose senses have all been dulled by the compensating laws of nature. When this point is recognized and acted upon there will come still greater success in coping with the greatest curse of the race.

The hospital idea in the treatment of the insane is nowhere better exemplified than at the State Homœopathic Hospital for the Insane at Middletown, New York. The surroundings amid which the patients live are in themselves an inspiration of peace and a mental tonic. A magnificent building set in a beautiful landscape gives the impression of a summer hotel or a great country house. No famous health resort is more attractively situated than this great institution in the midst of its two hundred acres of farm and woodland. The hospital is the only one I have ever visited wherein my nose did not identify it as a public institution the moment I entered. The painful sort of cleanliness that goes with the odor of carbolic acid, highly burnished brass, and bare floors scrubbed till the nail heads shine, is not to be found at Middletown. There is nothing in a tour of the greater part of the whole establishment to suggest that it is other than a great sanitarium, or hotel for invalids, except that in some portions of the institution the conductor uses a key to open many of the doors and they are carefully locked after passing through. There are not even any sets of rules and regulations posted up all about—not one in the whole institution.

The hospital is divided into suites, halls they are called. In each suite there are from twenty to fifty patients grouped according to the nature of their maladies. There is plenty of room for them to wander about if they are so inclined. There are parlors, reading rooms, sitting rooms, many quiet nooks and corners for those wishing to be alone, and the dining and sleeping rooms. All are furnished in good taste and as well as the average first-class hotel. There is absolutely no restraint upon the movements of more than half the patients. On pleasant days they spend much of the time out of doors wandering at will over the magnificent grounds or

enjoying various outdoor sports. Those inside read, write, play checkers, dominoes, or billiards, or otherwise amuse themselves. Attempts to escape are rare. Most of the patients are more than contented to remain where they are.

The contrast between the modern and old-fashioned manner of treatment is manifested as soon as a patient arrives. He is treated as a sick man, not as a prisoner, and this distinction is constantly maintained. In proof of the new hypothesis, it is said that very rarely does the patient enter the hospital in good physical condition. Even if no other than mental disease is present, there generally exists a bodily exhaustion or debility which has much aggravated the mental malady. Dr. Selden H. Talcott, the medical superintendent of the hospital, compares the condition of most patients on arriving to that of a runaway horse. Instead of allowing a frightened animal to continue his mad exertions, if he is physically restrained he soon becomes mentally calm. So the effort at the hospital is first to build up the body to its best possible condition. To this end most patients are put to bed when they arrive and quiet and rest are imposed for a long time. Combined with this a most liberal and nutritious diet is provided.

It happened when I spent two or three days at the hospital that fully fifty of the six hundred patients were in bed. Some were in rooms by themselves, some were in hospital dormitories containing a dozen beds each. About twenty of these patients were under the only restraint which is used in the hospital. They were held in bed and prevented from injuring themselves by the use of "protection sheets." There are no straitjackets, chains, gags, handcuffs, or padded cells in the whole hospital. All these means of restraint in use only fifteen years ago have given place to the ordinary bed and protection sheet. The latter device is made of strong cloth and it covers the patient from the neck down. It is a sheet in which there are sleeves which hold the patient's arms. These sleeves are fastened to the sheet by a web-like attachment much like a duck's wing. The effect is that the patient can move his arms from side to side but cannot raise them to his face or throat. The sheet is buttoned to the frame of the bed at the sides and the patient lies upon his back perfectly comfortable but under entire control. The only objection urged against it is that the wearer is unable to turn upon his side. The reply to this is that when a patient is in a condition requiring the use of the sheet, it is not necessary for his comfort that he should have greater freedom. It is explained that a very sick man always lies prone upon his back with no desire to assume any other position. When a sufferer becomes sufficiently restless to desire to move it is a sign of marked improvement. So with an insane man; when he has ceased to be comfortable upon his back, his mania usually has so far abated in violence that the restraint may safely be relaxed. The attendants say that the attacks of violence are much shorter when the patient is confined to his bed than when he is allowed to exhaust himself by moving about.

Perhaps the most marked contrast between the old and new methods of treatment is manifested in the way the patients eat at Middletown. Everything is provided to tempt and satisfy the appetite. Even the patients in bed are supplied with food in great variety and abundance. There is a dining room connected with each hall and the tastefully arranged tables are always as attractive as those at any first-class hotel. The food and cooking are of the best. One great feature of Middletown Hospital diet is hot milk. The patients drink great quantities of it. No opiates are administered to quiet violent patients, but large quantities of hot milk are prescribed, and it is said that a full stomach is one of the most calming influences that can be provided. In fact, in summing up the best physical means for recuperating the worn and wasted systems of the insane, Dr. Talcott says they may be stated in three words, "heat, milk, and rest, but the greatest of these is rest."

The amusement provided for the patients at Middletown is probably more important than medicine. Almost all the ordinary indoor amusements are enjoyed, and the hospital baseball club made up of patients easily defeats all the amateur clubs that have been brought against it. No attempt is made to require patients to work. Many such institutions strive to get as much work as possible from the inmates. For some an attractive occupation is a distinct advantage in promoting recovery. Thus, several months ago, a few patients of literary tastes hit upon the idea of printing a newspaper. The means were provided and now there is issued weekly

the *Conglomerate*, an attractive and prosperous paper, which is bright, original, and interesting.

About the medical treatment of insanity there is little to be said that is of public interest. It varies with the nature of the malady. It is really of less importance than the physical surroundings and the mental and moral influences brought to bear upon the patients. Opiates and narcotics have been almost universally abandoned by good physicians in dealing with insanity. Their reaction is disastrous in its effects. Medicine in cases of insanity has a palliative rather than a curative influence. It helps remove obstacles so that nature can effect a cure, when a cure is possible.

A study of even the best modern system of dealing by public measures with the great evil of insanity soon exposes two great defects. The first is that the law forbids any of its institutions to do anything whatever for the prevention or cure of insanity before the disease is fully developed. All persons are shut out from the benefits of public hospitals for the insane until they have been officially stamped as lunatics and have been committed to an institution by a magistrate. The reason for this is a provision of law designed wisely to prevent the incarceration of sane persons. But the effect is to prevent the voluntary resort of sufferers to the hospitals. The blight of insanity rarely falls upon its victim suddenly and without warning. There are premonitory symptoms that any good physician and often the victim himself will recognize. A case in point occurred while I was at Middletown. The superintendent received a letter from a lady in Buffalo begging admission as a private patient. She had suffered two years with nervous prostration and for several weeks had been unable to sleep. She felt that her mind was giving way under the strain and that she must have skillful treatment or become insane. Dr. Talcott was obliged to notify her as he had notified hundreds of similar applicants, that she could not be admitted until she had become entirely a lunatic. Then she could come after the chances of recovery had been very much reduced.

The second defect in the system is the fact that the law takes no cognizance of the different classes of insanity. No distinction is recognized between acute and chronic cases, between curables and incurables, between imbeciles and sufferers from acute mania. The injustice of the system is forcibly made plain by Dr. Talcott, who says :

"Here is a case of dementia that absolutely does not know whether he is cold or warm, whether he is clad or unclad, whether he has eaten corn meal pudding or quail on toast for dinner ; and yet this individual, steeped in the blessed forgetfulness and insensibilities of disease to such an extent that the spirit of suffering has forever passed from his being—every nerve a dead wire—is to be taken to a state hospital and cared for at the rate of three or four dollars per week. On the other hand, an old man suffering with chronic rheumatism, pinched and pained by every change of air, weak and worn by disease, with joints springing in agony from their sockets, feeling the need of stimulating diet, of soft and warm clothing, of artificial heat and invigorating sunlight, is left to languish in the county almshouse, without suggestion of change or improvement, because he happens to be sane."

Such a statement of fact requires no argument to suggest a remedy. The law should be made discriminating. No resource should be spared for those for whom a cure is possible, but for the hopeless paretic and the others whose remaining span of life can be but a living death, a very different provision will suffice. The Middletown hospital has won the enviable distinction of making the largest proportion of cures of any institution in the country. But it is constantly overcrowded. If the chronic cases were provided for elsewhere, its admirable advantages would be available for scores who are unable to obtain admission. Wonderful success has been won in holding in check the dreadful monster of insanity. The enemy may yet be bound and controlled, if an enlightened civilization will take advantage of the obvious opportunities. Provide means for dealing with the disease in its incipiency and discriminate wisely among its victims and the evil will be reduced to a minimum as far as statutory enactment can do it.

MORAL AND SOCIAL REFORMS IN CONGRESS.

BY GEORGE HAROLD WALKER.

HORACE GREELEY, in his "Recollections of a Busy Life," describes Congress as he found it during a brief term more than forty years ago, when party feeling ran so high that no one of his political friends dared to visit the other side of the chamber for fear of being assaulted. It was the last night of a session, when members are in good humor if ever, because of the prospect of an early departure to home and fireside, and the late editor of the *Tribune* tells how Joshua R. Giddings, the distinguished Abolitionist, went over to the Democratic side of the House, made some jocular remark to an acquaintance, when he was assaulted and glad to get away rapidly. When the First Congress met there was little or no division into parties; harmonious action was desired above all things as the best means of promoting the good of the country. Questions of foreign policy, principally the attitude that should be taken toward the French Revolution, first caused dissensions; but party feeling then was nothing compared with that which resulted from the advent of the slavery agitation. This is sufficiently illustrated in the allusion of Mr. Greeley. From pulpits all over the North the cause of anti-slavery was plead, in consequence of which a greater number of clergymen were interested in politics than ever before or since, and many found their way into the halls of Congress. Men of the stamp of Owen Lovejoy, who feared only God and who dared to speak the truth at all times and in all places, came to the front. On the other hand, the class of Representatives from the slave states was somewhat of the domineering order—on an average inferior, morally and intellectually, to the present generation of Congressmen from that section. It was not uncommon, therefore, with two such types of men arrayed against each other, that debate of a bitter, personal character and even actual violence occurred.

In the earlier times duels were fought as a result of heated discussion, and Bladensburg, a village five miles northeast of Washington on the Baltimore turnpike, was famous for contests of this kind between men of note in the councils of the nation. It is many years since a duel took place between members of Congress, and, while personal encounters are now and then known, they are happily the exception and not the rule.

General Garfield used to say that the sweetest flowers were those that bloomed over the garden wall of party politics. The closest intimacy existed between himself and Randolph Tucker of Virginia. They had both been college professors and, while opposed to each other politically, were fond of communing on scholarly subjects. Allen G. Thurman of Ohio had no faster personal friend in the Senate than George F. Edmunds of Vermont. They were frequently seen together outside of legislative halls, and yet were often pitted against each other in parliamentary contests as leaders of their respective sides of the chamber. No better example of the liberality of sentiment between men of opposing politics can be cited than the debate in the House a few years ago when the seat of Major McKinley of Ohio was contested, and Mills of Texas, the impulsive leader on the Democratic side, and Frank Hurd, the gifted orator and distinguished free trade advocate, stood up and plead the cause of the admired young champion of protection. Though to all appearances party feeling ran high during the last Congress and Speaker Reed was denounced by Democratic leaders because of his rulings, he was often seen, when the House was in committee of the whole, seated on the Democratic side of the hall among his party foes, joking and chatting as pleasantly as though taking part in a family reunion. In this one particular of Congressional amenities, therefore, there has been a great reform since the time of Horace Greeley's membership.

In nothing is the change more marked than in the line of temperance. There are still among Senators and Representatives many who are addicted to the flowing bowl, and probably in more than one committee room a suspicious bottle may be secreted, but its devotees are not so numerous as they once were. In the days before the war there was in the basement of the Senate wing of the Capitol

what was known as the "Hole in the Wall," where whisky and other liquors were sold as in any barroom, and this place was patronized by many of the noted Senators and Representatives of the *ante bellum* period. Some of them spent a good share of their time in the "Hole," only leaving whenever their votes were needed on some important question. Under the rules of both branches of Congress the sale of intoxicating liquors is now prohibited in the Capitol, and when one obtains it in the restaurants there it is usually drunk from a teacup. This practice has caused whisky bought in the building to be designated as "cold tea." Now and then a spasm of virtue among the governing officials finds vent in a rigid suppression of the traffic, and for weeks and months at a stretch it is difficult to obtain the beverage at either of the restaurants. Rules are generally more strictly enforced at the beginning of a session than later on. With the growth of temperance sentiment throughout the country has come an increase in the number of Senators and Representatives who are teetotalers. Some years ago the Congressional Temperance Society was founded by the late Vice-President Wilson and some of his associates, its object being to save from drunkards' graves certain brilliant members of both Houses who unfortunately seemed unable to control their appetites. It holds annual meetings that grow more and more popular and interesting year by year.

Tobacco and snuff continue to find their adherents in Congress, though the snuff-takers, for the most part, have passed from the scene with former generations. The venerable assistant doorkeeper of the Senate, Captain Bassett, who began his career as an employee of the body more than sixty years ago, still has one duty which he never fails to perform. There is a box near the presiding officer's desk which is always filled with snuff. In his pocket also, for the greater convenience of Senators, he carries a small case of antiquated pattern, the contents of which are invariably scented with a fragrant verbena bean. Allowance is made for snuff in the annual appropriations, and those who are fond of the nasal tickler may always find it in plenty As to smoking, it may be said that the habit is not losing ground. In both Houses there is a rule against it during a session, and in the Senate this rule is rigidly observed; but not so in the House of Representatives. The visitor in the gallery looking down upon the clouds of smoke that circle up from dozens of cigars, polluting the atmosphere and sickening those whose stomachs rebel against the noxious vapors, might imagine himself transported to a beer garden. Speaker Reed, however, made up his mind that if the House had a rule it should be strictly obeyed. He issued instructions to the sergeant-at-arms and his deputies that they request all smokers to withdraw from within the bar of the House and confine the lighted cigars to the limits of the cloak rooms. At first the smokers demurred, but it was of no use for them to protest. The Speaker presented the alternative of obeying the rule or abolishing it; so long as it stood a law of the organization he would enforce it. No complaint was made of the evil during the remainder of that Congress. It is hoped that the reform will be permanent.

By reference to the pictures of Congress as it appeared in the early history of the government it will be seen that members wore clothing modeled after the old-fashioned court costumes, consisting of velvet coats, knee-breeches, frilled shirt fronts and cuffs, high collars, or "chokers," silk stockings, and low-cut shoes with buckles. In later times the velvet coat gave way to the "swallow-tail" and the knee breeches to those of full length. It does not appear that wigs were in favor. Mustaches and beards were discarded. Now no uniformity of dress is recognized. When Omar D. Conger of Michigan was in Congress he wore a "swallow-tail" to the end of his term of service a few years ago. Judge Luke Poland of Vermont, who retired from public life but recently, was distinguished not only for ability as a legislator but for the old-time brass buttons which he wore on his long frock coat as a reminder of former customs. In the House of Representatives nowadays a member wears that which his fancy dictates. Anything is considered in good form in the way of dress so long as it is worn anywhere else. Mustaches and beards, as well as bald heads, are plentiful. On hot days will be seen negligée shirts, and now and then a member so far forgets himself as to appear in his shirt sleeves. The Senate is slow to reach this condition of affairs. Not long ago a certain Senator, noted for his eloquence as well as his fondness for the race track, entered the chamber attired in an outing shirt. That sight greatly shocked

the dignity of "the greatest legislative body in the world." He has not since repeated the performance. Senator Ingalls of Kansas was fond of wearing bright-colored cravats and neckties, but the reform he sought to introduce in this respect made very little headway. Black is generally regarded as the proper color for the statesman.

I once heard a lightning-rod peddler say that when he visited a farm house where there was a savage dog, and most farm houses have savage dogs, he took care first of all to cultivate the friendship of his canine majesty by tendering a choice morsel of meat. The bribe was usually successful, and he felt reasonably sure afterward that he would be given the freedom of the farm whether the master of the house were willing or not. If a detailed history of legislation were ever written it would be found that the plan of the lightning-rod man had been equally successful in the halls of Congress. Sam Ward, known in his day as the King of the Lobby, was famous for the dinners he gave. This was his method. But this form of lobbying, effective even if costly, is not so much in vogue as it used to be. There is not sufficient in the results to warrant the outlay. The days of *credit mobilier* and like schemes have gone by. Formerly the widows and daughters of broken-down politicians and army and navy officers engaged in the business of lobbying. They rented furnished houses for a season and often entertained on a large scale. This plan is still followed to some extent, for receptions, where the principal expense is for some potted plants and a small band of musicians to furnish inspiration for the waltz, do not cost so much as wine dinners. The increase in the membership of Congress and the consequent necessity of winning over a greater number of members to the support of a bill to insure its passage has rendered the old mode too expensive for many. The pernicious influence of the lobby is often cited by those who favor an increase of the membership of the House of Representatives.

A baser influence than the wine dinner is happily, too, becoming a thing of the past. Undoubtedly women of the viler classes still exert an influence in the lobby, but they are less bold than they once were. Congressional home life in Washington has made a great advance. A far greater proportion of members now bring their wives and children to live with them at the capital than ever before, and the control which a good home exerts in the affairs of men in general is not without its influence upon national legislation.

Civil service reform also has done much to improve the morals of Congress. Because of the desire on the part of departmental chiefs to please Congressmen and thus increase the annual appropriations for their respective bureaus, the influence of a Senator or Representative was always greater than any other in securing places. There were members who made it a practice to carry on a sort of office-brokerage business. It is not so many years since two or three Congressmen were expelled for making merchandise of their power and influence touching West Point cadetship appointments. But those two or three members were not altogether unlike many others; the one great distinction lay in the fact that they were caught and their villainy exposed to the world. The merit system has now obtained almost complete control of every bureau in the Government service, and the opportunity of baser natures is passing away. Fortunately the danger confronting women seeking Government employment has lessened.

The admission of colored men to Congress was the natural sequence of the radical sentiment prevailing and ending in the adoption of the Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution. Following upon the heels of reconstruction in the South there was a good sprinkling of them from that section. Not a few, notably Elliott of South Carolina, were good orators and made their mark in debate. Possibly the proudest day for the colored man in Congress was when Bruce of Mississippi occupied the chair during the temporary absence of the vice-president That the dark-skinned Mississippian should preside over this most dignified body, he an ex-slave, and many of those who appealed to him for recognition in debate former slave-owners—and that, too, in a chamber the very walls of which once resounded with violent speeches of those who upheld the odious institution of human bondage—was regarded not only as an honor to a worthy gentleman, but as one of the strangest events in the turn of the political wheel of fortune. The return to political prominence of the former master relegated to the rear many of the representatives of the once proscribed race. While the Southern Congressman is slow to admit the colored brother to a plane of social equality, courteous treatment

in debate is not withheld. Rarely does one hear the colored Representative alluded to as the "member" from this or that state, instead of the "gentleman," etc., as is customary in the usage of the more popular branch of Congress; still the practice has not been entirely outgrown.

An effort has been made of late years to change the character of Senators and Representatives so far as they are regarded as mere attorneys of their constituents to attend to all classes of wants, by providing them with clerks paid out of the public treasury. People generally know so little of what a Congressman is really called upon to do that the proposed change is regarded as a movement to encourage indolence among the lawmakers and to reduce the monetary surplus. The average Congressman's mail is something enormous, increasing in size in proportion to the ratio of intelligence or ability to write among his constituents, and the work it entails is more than one man can ordinarily attend to. When he does give it anything like the time it demands he neglects his legislative duties, the work for which he was really elected. People write to their Congressman upon every conceivable subject. If a constituent wants certain information which can be given by a departmental official he does not write to the aforesaid functionary, but unburdens his mind to his Congressman. He wants a government office, a document published by one of the public departments, some garden seeds, the copy of a certain bill, or he desires the member to visit a Washington secondhand bookstore to see if a certain book may be obtained which cannot be found in any of the home bookstores, or he proposes to visit Washington for a few days and wants rooms engaged at a boarding house. All these tasks and many more I have known Congressmen to perform. The cost of living at the national capital does not always leave a sufficient margin in the private funds of a Representative to warrant him in hiring on his own account the help which his constituents make necessary.

Another reform to come eventually will be in the plan of seating members. At present all have desks which are ranged in semicircular tiers in front of the Speaker's platform, making the hall look like a great schoolroom. In reality each member has thus an office within the chamber, and not a few there assort their correspondence, answer letters, and read newspapers. What is needed is to take away the desks and substitute for them benches or pews whereby members could sit close together. For those who had writing to do in connection with pending legislation, tables provided with stationery could be located in the cloak room, or the benches might be partitioned off by broad arm rests which would serve the same purpose. Should the membership of either branch of Congress be at any time very greatly increased something like this plan would have to be adopted, for there is not room for many more desks unless they be of much smaller size than those now in use. By bringing the members closer to the rostrum of the presiding officer better attention would be given the proceedings, and, on the whole, there would be more intelligent legislation, the people and the country in general being the gainers.

FUR-SEAL AND THE SEAL ISLANDS.

BY SHELDON JACKSON, D. D.

United States General Agent of Education for Alaska.

AS the adventurous hunt of the little sable led the hardy Cossacks in that century's march from the Ural Mountains across the wild storm-swept Steppes of Asia to Kamchatka and Bering Sea, so the new-found sea otter in the waters of Alaska lured them on year by year until they had extended the Russian settlements for two thousand miles along the American coast. The fur animals were so plentiful and the profits so enormous that the hunt became a wild headlong race, so eager that time was not taken for the building of ships or the procuring of trained seamen. Boats were hastily constructed of planks fastened together with rawhide or sealskin thongs, and in these unseaworthy floats, without chart or compass, men boldly ventured into unknown and dangerous seas. One half of them found watery graves or died from other causes, but the

other half returned home rich, and the slaughter went on—a slaughter so indiscriminate that in half a century the sea otter had become scarce.

But alongside the sea otter had been found his cousin, the fur-seal, and as the supply of the otter began to diminish, increasing attention was paid to the seal. For years careful observers among the early hunters on the Aleutian Islands had noticed that the seals went north in the spring and returned in the fall accompanied by their young. The old natives also had a tradition that an Aleut had been cast away on islands to the north, which they called Amik. Therefore when the usual catch of furs began to decrease upon the Aleutian Islands, earnest attention was given to discovering the home of the fur-seal. For eighteen years an unremitting search was kept up. For three years Master Gerassim Gavrilovich Pribylov in a small sloop doggedly continued the search, but so well had nature hidden these islands among the impenetrable fogs of Bering Sea, that Pribylov cruised for weeks in their immediate vicinity, with every evidence of being in the neighborhood of land without being able to find it. But one day early in June, 1786, with the fog so thick that he could scarcely see his vessel's length he ran against the walls of Tolstoi Mees and the secret was out. The island was named after his sloop, the *St. George.*

A party of hunters were left on the island and they in turn discovered the larger island of St. Paul. Over five hundred thousand skins were taken during the year, and the islands afterwards became a kind of "national bank" from which the celebrated Baranof raised the funds to carry on his government in Alaska. If he needed an additional shipload of provisions or supplies, all he had to do was to authorize the killing of more seals in payment.

With the discovery of the Pribylov Islands another fur-seal rookery was added to the supply of the world. Previous to this discovery the supply had come largely from southern waters. From 1770 to 1800 one million skins were taken from Kerguelen Land. In 1798–9 over one million were taken from the island of Mas-á-Fuera, near Juan Fernandez. From 1800 to 1823 one million three hundred and twelve thousand were taken from the Georgian Islands; in 1814–15 four hundred thousand from the Antipodes Island off the coast of New South Wales; and in 1820–1 three hundred thousand from the South Shetland Islands. At that time the principal market was in China, and skins were so abundant that prices occasionally fell to fifty cents each.

The indiscriminate slaughter soon resulted in the extermination of the fur-seal in those sections until now there are but three known rookeries in the world. The smallest of these is the Lobos Islands off the mouth of the river La Platte, and is under the government supervision of the republic of Uruguay. The annual take is restricted to twelve thousand skins. The second rookery is on the Commander Islands in Bering Sea and belongs to Russia. From these the annual take is forty thousand skins. The third and largest rookeries are those on the Pribylov Islands, from which the annual take for the twenty years preceding 1890 has been about one hundred thousand skins, or two thirds of the world's supply.

Upon the first discovery of the Pribylov group the destruction of the seal was so great that the Russian government was compelled to interfere, and in 1805 prohibited all killing for a period of five years. From 1820–67 forty two thousand skins were annually exported to the United States, Great Britain, and Canada.

The first years after the transfer to the United States again witnessed an indiscriminate slaughter of the fur-seal by different American firms, until Congress was compelled to interfere and authorize the Treasury Department to lease the islands under suitable restrictions to a responsible company. This was the origin of the Alaska Commercial Company of San Francisco. This company held the lease of the islands from 1869–90, paying the Government an annual rental of $55,000 and a royalty of 62½ cents upon each of the one hundred thousand skins allowed to be taken.

At a recent congressional investigation it was ascertained that up to June 30, 1888, the company had paid into the United States Treasury the sum of $5,597,100, and that for the same time the Government had expended for the protection of the islands in the form of salaries, etc., for the agents, expenses of the revenue marine steamers, and other outlays the sum of $400,000, leaving a net profit to the Government of $5,197,100. The net profit for the entire lease was over $5,500,000.

In the spring of 1890 there was a reletting of the islands for a second period of twenty years, and the successful bidder was the North American Commercial Company of San Francisco. By the terms of the new lease the company pay $60,000 a year rental for the islands, a royalty of $7.62½ upon each skin taken, and a revenue tax of $2 upon each skin taken. Upon a basis of one hundred thousand skins the annual revenue of the Government is $1,000,000, and the probable net profit of the entire lease $19,000,000. Commencing in the seventies, small schooners were fitted out at San Francisco, Victoria, and other ports to capture the seals as they passed north along the coast in the spring. Emboldened by their success, they followed the seal into Bering Sea, and even in a few instances landed upon the seal islands themselves. These increased in number and boldness until in 1885 thirteen thousand contraband sealskins were placed upon the market; in 1886 twenty-five thousand; in 1887 thirty-four thousand; in 1888 (very stormy season) twenty-five thousand; in 1889 forty thousand; in 1890 fifty thousand; and during the present year sixty thousand. They were taken in the water, where a large percentage of those shot sank before they could be secured. They were also largely females with young. Consequently the above enumeration represents nearly a million seals killed illicitly during the past five years.

This destruction of seal life by the poachers has sensibly diminished the number upon the seal islands, so that while the North American Commercial Company were allowed in 1890 to take sixty thousand skins, there were so few on the islands that they secured only twenty-one thousand. And this year partly to recuperate the seal life and partly on account of pending negotiations with Great Britain the take has been restricted to seven thousand five hundred; this number being allowed in order to furnish food to the native inhabitants.

During the years 1886-7 in order to break up poaching, ten American and nine British vessels were seized by the United States revenue marine steamers. The seizure of the British vessels at once raised the question of jurisdiction and made the "seal question" one of international importance.

Last spring through an act of the Parliament of Great Britain, that empire agreed to assist the United States in preserving the seal from destruction, and this summer Bering Sea was patrolled by three United States revenue cutters, four American and two British men-of-war, while in the harbor of Unalaska are anchored one American and one British prison ship for the safe keeping of the captured officers of the poaching vessels.

The Pribylov group consists of the four islands Walrus, Otter, St. Paul, and St. George; only the latter two being utilized in the capture of seal. St. Paul has an area of thirty-three square miles, and St. George of twenty-seven. They are thirty miles apart, and distant about two hundred miles from the main land. Like all the islands of Western Alaska, they are treeless and in summer covered with a luxuriant growth of moss, grass, and flowers. In winter they are surrounded with great ice fields from the north and in summer enveloped in almost perpetual fog so dense that the sun is seldom seen. They are without sheltered harbors and oftentimes for days together a boat cannot land through the surf. But the fogs and storms are favorable to seal life.

When the islands were first discovered they were uninhabited, but the Russians colonized them with two hundred natives from the Aleutian Islands. At the time of the transfer in 1867, a number of them returned to their former homes. For those that remained and others who came the Alaska Commercial Company erected small but comfortable frame houses, which are provided to the people free of rent. The people are also furnished with meat, fish, fuel, medical attendance and medicines, schools, and schoolbooks free. The men receive on an average $500 for a season's work, and the season consists of about six weeks' work. The remainder of the year they have little to do but eat, sleep, gamble, and attend the numerous feast days of the Græco Russian Church. In 1887 the three hundred Aleuts on the two islands had to their credit in the savings banks of San Francisco the sum of $64,732.11.

It is estimated that four million seals annually make their summer home on these islands. They come when the ice leaves, April or May, and remain until winter commences, the following October and November.

A full-grown male seal is a fine large animal measuring six and one half to seven and one half feet from tip to tip and weighing from four hundred to seven hundred pounds. His hair is a dark, dull brown color.

A female seal or cow is from four to four and one half feet long and weighs about one hundred pounds. On first coming out of the water the color is a dirty gray, which upon drying changes into a steel and maltese gray luster, and later into a brown and gray mixed.

The young when first born are from twelve to fourteen inches long and weigh from three to four pounds. For the first three months their color is a jet black, with two white spots just back of the fore-arm. They are born on the land and if placed in the water would sink and drown. When two months old they commence to learn to swim, and soon become so proficient that in early winter they go to sea with their friends and remain away six months, without ever landing so far as known. Whither they go no one can tell. We know that each spring they enter Bering Sea from the North Pacific through the various passes between the Aleutian Islands. Early in May the strongest and most vigorous of the bulls arrive as the advance guard at the seal islands and leisurely proceed to select for summer quarters a section of the beach about twenty feet in diameter. There is much fighting for choice locations near the sea and possession is secured by the strongest. After taking their position they do not leave it until in the fall when they start southward. During the three or four months they are on the islands they neither eat nor drink. They come out of the sea in the spring fat and strong and return to it in the fall lean and weak. Having settled upon their location the bulls spend much of their time sleeping until the arrival of the cows.

The last of May or early in June the cows begin to arrive and then the great struggle of the season commences among the bulls for their possession. The strongest ones being nearest the water and having the double advantage of location and strength secure from fifteen to twenty for their summer's harem. The bulls in the second row from the water secure a less number, and those in the third row still fewer, and so on back from the beach until some of the old bulls that with increasing age and declining strength are forced to take a back place are left without any.

The younger male seals from one to five years of age that have not the courage to enter the lists and fight for a family are compelled to go by themselves and are called "bachelor seals." It is from this class that the sealskins of commerce are taken. At four or five years of age the skin is at its best. After that it becomes more hairy and less valuable. At that age not only are the skins more valuable, but the bachelors are grouped by themselves and more easily taken.

Killing commences in June and lasts about six weeks, or until the whole number of skins are taken. As the seals are very shy and keen of scent, a day for their capture is selected when the wind will allow a party of twenty or thirty men to creep along the beach and get between the seals and the sea without being scented. Having got to the seaward of the herd, at a given signal they spring to their feet, shouting, beating on tin pans, striking their clubs together, making all the noise they can to frighten the herd. The astonished seals leap forward in their desperate efforts to escape. If their heads are seaward, into the sea they plunge, but if inland they run in that direction. Those that run inland are closely followed up. Once started they are driven with less trouble than so many pigs. After driving a short distance a halt is made and the herd is carefully assorted out. Those that are too old or too young are allowed to return to the sea, the killing being mainly confined to "bachelors" from three to five years of age.

The selected ones are then driven inland to the salting houses. As their pelts weigh about eight pounds each, it is a saving of labor to make the seal carry himself to the storehouse. During the driving great care is taken not to overheat the animals as that would render the skins worthless, causing the hair to fall out. Upon a cool day when the grass is wet, they can be safely driven at the rate of a mile an hour. For a short distance they can get over the ground as fast as a man can run, but being encased in a thick, warm coat of fat, they soon become exhausted. When the killing ground is reached, they are allowed several hours to cool off.

One June morning in 1890 in company with Mr. C. J. Goff, the U. S. Treasury Agent on the islands, I went out to the killing grounds near the village of St. Paul. A band of three hundred seals were huddled together in the care of keepers. From them a small band of fifteen or twenty would be taken at a time and driven a few yards from the main band. Four or five men with hickory clubs about five feet long went among them. A rap of the club on the nose, between the eyes, or

back of the head quickly killed them. The clubbers were followed by men with knives, who stab the seal to the heart letting out the blood. They in turn were followed by the rippers, who cut the skin around the head and flippers and down the belly, to save the knives of the skinners from any possible chance of being dulled by contact with sand in the fur. The skinners are so dexterous that it takes only about two minutes to remove a pelt. These were followed by another set of men who separated the skin from the blubber. Thus a thousand seals can be killed and skinned in about three hours.

While the killing was going on a score of women and girls were filling sealskin bags with blubber, which was carried home on their backs to be fried out into oil (butter) for winter use. The flesh was also carried home, cut into thin strips, and hung on frames to dry. After being dried it is stuffed into the stomach of the sea lion, which has been cleansed and prepared for the purpose. After pressing in all the dried meat possible, seal oil is poured in filling up the spaces. This makes a huge sausage (Arctic canned seal meat) between two and three feet in diameter.

The intestines of the seal are also saved. They are cleansed very much as are the intestines of the hog when prepared for sausages. They are then inflated with air and hung out to dry. When dry they are slit lengthwise with a sharp knife and form a ribbon three or four inches wide and from seventy-five to one hundred feet long. From these strips of intestines are manufactured the famous kamileka, or waterproof coats, universally worn by the natives in this section. These garments are much stronger, lighter, and drier, and resist rain longer and better than the rubber goods of commerce. Among the Eskimos of the Arctic the larger intestines of the walrus are used, making a correspondingly wider band. Thus every part of the seal is put to practical use.

From the killing ground the skins are carted to the storehouse, where they are counted, weighed, and salted down in bins. After seven days they are taken up and resalted, and after forty days are taken up the second time, lightly brushed, and tied up into bundles containing two skins each for shipment. In the fall they are sent to San Francisco where they are packed into casks and shipped to London.

In London the grease is removed and the skins are shaved down by machinery on the flesh side until all the long outer hairs can be pulled out, for in their native condition the beautiful fine fur is hidden by coarse outer hair—a condition similar to the feathers and down on a bird. The remaining fur is now the native color of light brown bordering on a dull yellow. The treatment of the skin being completed, the fur is dyed to the beautiful color it has in sacques. The larger number of skins are then returned to the United States ready to be made up into garments.

The skin in its native condition is comparatively inexpensive, costing from $10 to $15. The preparation for market is so particular and delicate an operation that the original cost is greatly increased. It is claimed that furriers of New York can compete with those of London in the preparation of the skins, but the larger number of skins continue to be sent to London.

CHARLES STEWART PARNELL.

BY RALPH D. ST. JOHN.

IN the list of Ireland's heroes Charles Stewart Parnell holds a unique place. He was rarely gifted by nature with an overmastering will power with which to strive for his country's cause; and no other ever came so near success. He forfeited all claims to public respect and yet defiantly compelled the public to notice him. He met death as a patriot covered with glory, as a man overwhelmed with obloquy. His whole history is a series of surprises, a grouping of contradictions. Born an aristocrat, he became the people's champion; with a palace at his command, he chose the path which led him to a jail for his domicile; having made himself a one-man power of the most pronounced type, he so influenced other men to think and to act for themselves as to preclude a successor to his position. The personal history of such a character is of wide interest to all.

To that landed aristocracy of hated English lineage which has sapped the life blood of the Irish people, Parnell belonged by birth. Record hunters have traced his genealogy back to the Earl of Warwick, the "king maker" of the fifteenth century; and on the long reaching roll they have found several eminent names. It was an old Cheshire family of the name of Parnell that in the reign of Charles II. purchased a tract of land in conquered Ireland and founded there a new home. Previous to this, however, in the direct ancestry the name had been connected with the names of Cromwell and his invincible Ironsides.

Linking itself with this latter statement as a singular coincidence is the fact that Parnell's mother was the daughter of Charles Stewart, America's famous "old admiral," who in the war of 1812 as commander of the frigate *Constitution*, gained the sobriquet of "Old Ironsides." Thus on both the paternal and the maternal side there had come to this Irish leader as an inheritance, qualities which had won this most expressive of all names for unyielding strength of character.

On large maps of Ireland there will be found in Wicklow County a place marked "The Meeting of the Waters." This name is the title of Moore's beautiful poem describing the region, beginning,

"There is not in the wide world a valley so sweet
As that vale in whose bosom the bright waters meet."

In Avondale, situated in this valley, is the Parnell estate, an estate having a large tenantry and a heavy rent roll. Here Charles Stewart Parnell was born in 1846, and here he passed his earliest years. He was educated in England, being sent there at the age of six to attend school at Yeovil. Later he studied under private teachers at Derbyshire and Oxfordshire, and then passed some time in the University of Cambridge, not, however, finishing any regular course.

After leaving college he wished before settling down to the life of a country gentleman to visit America, the land of his mother, and the visit was made shortly after the close of the Civil War. Doubtless what he saw and heard on his extended travels during those pivotal times in the reconstruction of this government on a new basis of freedom and personal rights, had much weight in inclining him toward the position he afterward assumed in his own land.

Fenianism had already served as a drill-master to this youth who was preparing unconsciously for the leadership in the great war for Irish independence. This secret brotherhood, organized in 1858 with the design of bringing about by force of arms the separation of Ireland from England, had had from its beginning the hearty support of Mrs. Parnell. In many ways she managed to give aid and comfort to the bold conspirators. Suspected and closely watched by the government officials, she yet eluded detection; and for the sake of those she personally helped, she gained the heartfelt gratitude of the whole order. The execution in 1867 of O'Brien, Larkin, and Allen, the three Fenians who were condemned for the killing of policeman Bret in a mob occurring in Manchester, England, caused intense excitement. They were looked upon by their compatriots as martyrs. It was claimed that the English government in attempting by such measures to suppress the Fenians, overstepped the boundaries of law as distinctly as in their wildest outbreaks did the exasperated people with whom it dealt. Mrs. Parnell was deeply moved by the event, and her son was learning in most effectual manner the lesson of Ireland's humiliation and thralldom.

In 1871 the Home Rule party was formed, with Mr. Butt as its leader. It advocated Ireland's right to make the laws pertaining to her own affairs. This purpose demanded an Irish parliament. Adherents rapidly attached themselves to the new association, and among them was young Parnell. Up to this time, apparently, he had had no other aspiration than to live and die a respectable squire as his forefathers had done. Shortly now, however, thoughts of a political career began to take shape in his mind; and action quickly followed thought. He threw himself into political circles and, being an apt student, he rapidly gained influence there. In 1875 he secured the election to Parliament as a representative from County Meath.

At the beginning such a career for him seemed singularly unpromising. Of a reticent, cold nature, with an utter lack of all oratorical powers, this taciturn man seemed little likely ever to make an impression in that brilliant conclave of parliamentarians. He had, too, to overcome the baneful effect upon himself, and the prejudicial report

which had preceded him, of having completely broken down in a public speech attempted at the time of his nomination. That this disaster had not cost him the election was due to the shrewdness of the chairman of the Nationalist party, who most felicitously called the attention of the assembly to the patriotic efforts of the candidate's mother by shouting, "He's the son of the Mrs. Parnell who sheltered the Fenian boys." The grateful hearts of the Irish audience were stirred, and the election was safe.

Home Rule was the one question which this obscure man determined to force through Parliament. That body had scarcely regarded Mr. Butt's efforts in its behalf, looking upon his propositions as the harmless vagaries of Irish discontent. But now a power was shaping in its midst which was to shake despotic rule to its very foundations and lead to the reconstruction of the whole system of British politics. Indifference to Irish interests was to become henceforth a thing of the past. Former methods of ignoring measures relating to them could no longer succeed. Irish independence was the ruling thought in Mr. Parnell's mind; Mr. Parnell was to be the ruling spirit in the kingdom of Great Britain.

Gradually all things began to yield to his influence. As an initiatory step in the preparation for his commanding sway, he drilled himself in public speaking until in spite of his lifeless manner and unimpassioned voice, he could compel attention. For this he wasted no strength in the acquisition of a fine style. He only wanted to be heard for the sake of the things he had to say. These things were of weighty import, and to effect a lodgement in the attention of his hearers needed no other force than clear, terse speech and cool, connected reasoning driven by his powerful will.

In parliamentary tactics he was a proficient student and soon became an adept. When the House of Commons according to its custom, met with contempt his introductory measures in Ireland's behalf and undertook to brush them slightingly by for more congenial matters, he turned against it its own weapons, sharpened by his inventive genius, to a degree unknown before. He resorted to the obstruction policy. Several times he caused the members a weary all-night sitting in an attempt to pass some motion which in the end proved vain. His artful maneuvering thwarted every effort. He and his instructed followers would speak hundreds of times on a question and then propose an endless string of amendments to it. They thus involved it in such a maze of intricacies that it was impossible for the time being to recover it for further action.

Meantime in Ireland Davitt's scheme of establishing a vast Land League had met with great success. This League was now a powerful organization, which aimed to do away with the system of landlords and tenants and to make the tillers of the soil the owners as well. The more radical members of the Home Rule party, with Mr. Parnell at their head, warmly espoused the plan, and the latter was elected president of the League. He saw in it a stepping-stone toward the establishment of Home Rule, and so gave himself earnestly to its furtherance, resorting to all means for raising funds in its interests. These funds were to be offered as a fair equivalent to the persons in possession of the land. By a personal visit to the United States in 1880, Parnell succeeded in raising hundreds of thousands of dollars to be used for this purpose, and he also founded here the Irish National League of America.

On his return he was elected president of the Home Rule party, to succeed Mr. Shaw. "Keep a firm grip on your homesteads," was his advice to his people, and to help them do this was the motto according to which he shaped his policy. So radical was he now becoming in all his plans of action that some of the other eminent Irish leaders began to stand aloof from him, unequal to the daring which his plans demanded; and their next step was to oppose him. But that iron nature of his cared nothing for the support of colleagues. He needed men only as tools to serve his purpose, and he began to feel himself independent enough alone to sway the masses with whom rested the deciding power of the votes. His opponents rallied a following to their side. The division in the party roused great agitation in Ireland, which, added to the distress occasioned by famine, caused violent demonstrations. The government had recourse to harsh measures to quell them. Parnell advocated resistance to government exactions. The evictions of the poverty-stricken tenants from their holdings became of still more common occurrence. Parnell devised the plan of boycotting to prevent the substitution of a tenantry loyal

to English rule. The government passed the Coercion bill which authorized the proper officers to arrest any Irishman suspected of treason, and, without trial, to imprison him for an indefinite time. Treason consisted in inciting the people to resist the established laws in force over the tenantry. Parnell in Parliament set himself vigorously against this bill. A stormy struggle ensued lasting for days, in the course of which Parnell and thirty-four of his followers were ejected from the House. But notwithstanding these disturbances, the Land League flourished and Home Rule was gaining ground.

Mr. Gladstone, although such a stanch opposer of Mr. Parnell, had yet been far from indifferent to Ireland's woes. His pre-eminent genius in statecraft had been of slow growth, steadily developing through long years of parliamentary life. Entering the House of Commons as a Tory, he broadened into a Liberal. As a Liberal he yet stoutly resisted Parnell's radicalism. He had already done much for Irish reform. At this juncture he introduced and carried a new land act. It was a move in the right direction, but it fell far short of reaching Parnell's idea. The latter contemptuously denounced it before a large public meeting and advised non-compliance with its conditions. For this speech delivered in the fall of 1881, he was arrested on the ground of treason, and thrown into Kilmainham jail. The leader thus silenced, the Land League suffered. All of its persistent supporters were arrested and imprisoned, and the strong arm of the government suppressed it.

Instigated by Parnell the prisoner, the Irish people resorted to retaliatory measures. Rebellion was in the air. There was issued a manifesto declaring that the tenantry would pay no rent until the League men were released. The situation was desperate; no leadership save that of Parnell's was adequate to meet the exigencies. Mr. Gladstone negotiated a treaty with him. Behind the bars, Parnell was as inflexible and aggressive in his demands as ever. The terms of the treaty were hard. Mr. Gladstone yielded. Parnell was released. A great victory was scored for Ireland's cause.

But victory seemed to have turned the people's heads. With this leader powerful enough to have gained all for them, some among them endangered all by that appalling tragedy, the murder in Phenix Park of Lord Cavendish and Mr. Burke, the new chief secretary and under secretary for Ireland. Coercion laws harder than ever before were put in force, and in Parliament it took weary months of shrewd calculation on Mr. Parnell's part to recover the lost ground.

Meantime Mr. Gladstone had completely changed his views regarding Ireland, and now took his stand by the side of Parnell as a stanch supporter of Home Rule. In 1886 he introduced a bill for giving Ireland a Parliament of its own, which was defeated by only thirty votes. So near did Ireland come to victory. The Gladstone ministry gave place, after making an appeal to the country, to the Salisbury ministry which came into power on a majority vote of one hundred against Home Rule. Since then Mr. Gladstone has stood firm for the principle of Home Rule, seconding Mr. Parnell's never flagging efforts. With the ministry in power adverse to them, their hope lay in keeping the public interest centered in their cause. A very slight turn in fortune's wheel might usher in at any time the auspicious moment which should crown their undertaking with success.

The attempt made by the publication in the *Times* of a series of letters based on a forgery, to incriminate Parnell in the Phenix Park tragedy and other crimes committed by bands of Irish assassins, reacted in placing him higher than ever in the esteem of the world. His open formal exoneration from that terrible indictment gave him the kingly title of the "uncrowned king." He had now, in 1889, reached the summit of his power.

Had his life record ended here, his name would have been in all respects the brightest in Irish history. But in a disgraceful divorce suit it was covered with infamy. Captain O'Shea had been for years his warm personal friend. Each of the men in political life had done much for, had received much from, the other. Through the faithful electioneering of O'Shea, Parnell had gained many constituents. Through the influence of Parnell, O'Shea had been made a member of Parliament. In the early part of 1890 there were dire rumors of scandal linking the names of Parnell and Mrs. O'Shea; and then came a trial before the court in which the husband sought and was granted an annulment of his marriage contract. In the developments of the case Parnell the betrayer was revealed in his true character.

Suspicion was now awakened as to the motive power of his whole career. Proved basely false in one particular, he was suspected of having been masquerading in all particulars. The world had thought him a self-denying patriot seeking only his country's good ; it now feared that he was merely a selfish schemer for personal power. It had judged him a hero moved to noble action by a deep sense of national wrong ; it now saw him a man without a conscience. After the damaging decision of the trial, during which Ireland's cause itself seemed trembling in the balance, his prestige was gone. His adherents withdrew from him. Irish interests were considered unsafe in his hands. He was forcibly compelled to drop the lines of leadership. No thought of retirement, however, even now was entertained by him. Disgrace itself proved powerless to break or even daunt that iron will. Deeming that his marriage to the divorced Mrs. O'Shea might in a measure retrieve the ground he had lost, he made her his wife, in June of the present year. The political marriage only further alienated him. He redoubled and continued his efforts, until, in October last, struggling with all his obstinate determination to reinstate himself as Ireland's leader, he was suddenly stricken down by death.

Thus sadly from the pages of Ireland's story, at the point of its most thrilling interest, the leading character has dropped out. All are bitterly disappointed in the turn the plot has taken. It is too surprising a change to warrant yet any prophecy as to what the sequel will be, but too many strong characters are now involved in it to permit the thought that it will end with a record of failure.

A little variation of an ancient myth well illustrates Ireland's condition. Instead of the rock which the old traditional king, Sisyphus, was condemned to roll up the rugged sides of a hill only to see it fall back again as soon as the top was reached, imagine a fertile, rounded land. Long ago it slipped from its proper ledge on the mountain of independence and rolled into the government domains of its nearest neighbor. It offered fine opportunity for plunder and its neighbor determined to hold it there. For the doomed king, substitute strong volunteers, who, one after another have been crushed under the weight of the land as it has overborne them and fallen back in spite of their arduous efforts to restore it. The volunteer Parnell was of a different type from all who preceded him. Under his support there was no sign of a retrograde movement. By his genius he rallied to his side as assistant a man stronger than himself, a man so strong that when Parnell was compelled to leave it all, the land felt no wavering on account of the shock of his withdrawal. There is no reason yet to fear that it will not continue to be held steady by the power of Mr. Gladstone and finally be rolled back into its rightful place.

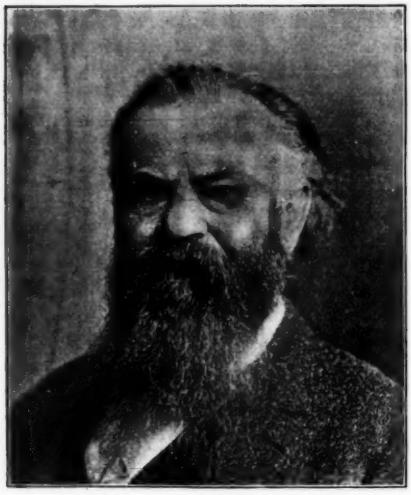
A HAUNTING ECHO.

BY MARY R. BALDWIN.

THERE seems along the secret ways to glide
The faintest echo of a strain sublime,
Sung to the measures of an unseen hand
That sways behind the curtained doors of time.

Dost question, O my eager, list'ning soul ?
Does fancy fashion it within the mind?
Or is it murmur of that mighty voice
That down the ages answers to its kind?

O gliding song ! O aspiration's voice !
Whate'er thou art, where mortals strive or wait,
Still haunt their souls until the key they find
If thou art echo from the good and great !



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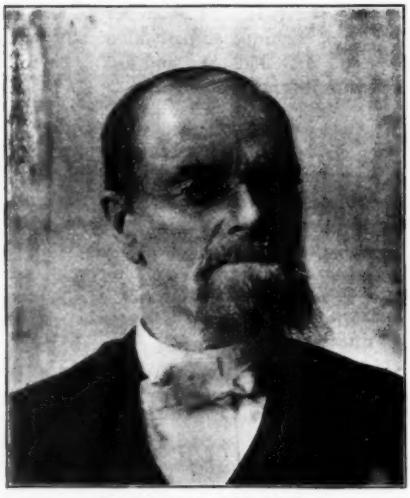

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A TRIP UP THE NILE.

BY ARMAND DE POTTER.

LEAVING Cairo one bright February morning, we embarked on a pretty little steamer, chartered to convey ourselves and friends up to the First Cataract and back. The deck, covered with an awning and spread with rugs, looked very inviting, and it was with pleasant anticipations that we settled ourselves in easy chairs, prepared to enjoy the sail up the famous old river. In leaving the dock we had a fine view of Cairo, dominated by the slender minarets of the Mehemet Ali Mosque and the yellow hills behind it; the long bridge over the Nile and the shores where lay moored hundreds of white-winged dahabeahs. On one side was the island of Rhoda, where tradition says Moses was found by Pharaoh's daughter, and where the Nilometer is placed, that instrument whose measurement of the inundation foretells so accurately the fullness or poverty of the Egyptian harvests. On the other side, the green fields stretch away to the edge of the desert where stand the three Great Pyramids, a prominent and suggestive feature in the view. Palm groves and villages break the monotony of the flat shores, until our boat is moored at Bedreshayn, and here amid the clamor of donkey boys and braying of donkeys, we mount the lively little animals and start off on a gallop, the noise and confusion more suggestive of a village riot than of a peaceful pleasure party on an expedition to ancient Memphis.

Of this famous city, once the capital of Lower Egypt, nothing now remains but the colossal statue of Rameses II. discovered in 1820, and which once stood at the entrance to the great temple of Ptah, the only vestige of all the temples and palaces of Thothmes I., Rameses II., and Menepthah, the Pharaoh of the Exodus. But the vast necropolis is a mute witness to its former greatness.

We rode on a path raised above the level of inundations, through groves of palms and dusty Arab villages built of mud, to the edge of the desert where the yellow sand drifts up to the very edge of the green fields, and here yawning pits and shreds of mummy cloth remind us we are passing through the city of the dead, more enduring than that of the living. Then we saw before us the Pyramid of Saccara, of the fifth dynasty, curious from the fact of being built in a series of stories resembling steps, five of which are still above the sand. It contains a few rooms, considered by some to have been used as a serapeum. Crossing the brow of the elevation on which stands the Pyramid, there lay spread before us the boundless desert, stretching away to the horizon where the matchless blue sky seemed to bend down to meet it. On this vast plain there was nothing visible but

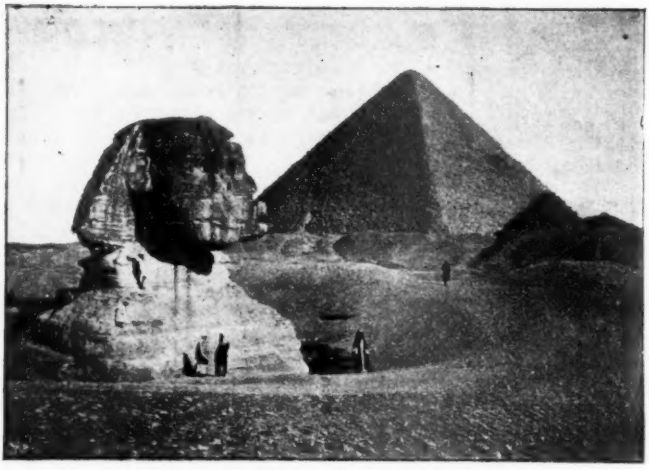
Statue of Rameses II. at Memphis.

the little hut of Monsieur Mariette, occupied by him during his excavations, but now abandoned to tourists, who spread their luncheons on its broad piazza.

A few rods from it, a stairway, now covered by the ever-drifting sand, leads down to the underground tombs of the bulls. The bull, or apis, was worshiped as the incarnation of

the god Ptah, the supreme divinity at Memphis, and during its life was kept in luxury in the temple and at its death buried with magnificent funeral rites in the serapeum. While Apis lived, the Egyptians believed that their god was with them; when he died, the whole land was in mourning until another bull was found bearing the special marks that were supposed to distinguish it from others.

Their religion seems to have been based on the idea of one God, to whom they gave many attributes and characters, symbolized oftentimes by animals which were regarded as sacred by the people, who were unable to look beyond the symbol and demanded something visible. Every city had its favorite divinity or rather triad consisting of the god, wife, and son, as, for example, at Memphis,—Ptah, the creator, his wife, destroyer of the enemies of the sun, and their son, protector of the sciences.



The Sphinx and Great Pyramid.

The object of greatest interest at Saccara is the tomb of Ti, whose statue is shown at the Ghizeh Museum. The square court leading to it is half buried in sand, yet enough of its walls is visible to show some fine sculptures and the name and portrait of Ti, who appears to have been a man of wealth and authority. From this court a narrow corridor leads into two rooms whose walls are covered with sculpture in low relief, representing Ti as hunting, fishing, and receiving tribute from his estates. On one side is a procession of women bearing gracefully on their heads baskets filled with fruits; on another side is the funeral of Ti. The various industries are also represented, such as painting, building, glass-blowing, bread-making, and the processes of agriculture, sowing, reaping, raising of cattle and poultry.

A gallop back through desert, field, and village brings us again to our temporary home, the little steamer; the saddles are quickly removed, backsheesh distributed, and amid the shouting of boys and beggars we are off again, sailing up the Nile. To the left lies Helonan, where the discovery of strong sulphur springs has caused a new town to spring up, as modern and European as one could possibly wish, and a favorite resort of the khedive. On the right stands the curiously shaped Pyramid of Meydoom, called the False Pyramid and supposed to be the oldest one of all.

Our life on the Nile is most delightful. Every night the boat is moored to a stake driven into the river bank, and the silence is unbroken, unless we are unlucky enough to be near a sakkiyek, a wheel turned by oxen to draw up water for irrigation, and then the creaking of the slimy wooden wheels continues far into the night. Early morning sees us off again enjoying the dry and bracing air. We pass little clusters of mud huts surrounded by sugar factories with tall chimneys, the obelisks of the nineteenth century. Occasionally a group of white houses amid palm groves, a slender minaret, or white-domed mosque forms a characteristic picture delightful to the artistic eye. Sometimes the entire population half clothed gathers on the bank to salute the passing steamer and clamor for alms, and again we sail for hours passing nothing but an occasional shadoof, which resembles an old-fashioned wellsweep and is worked by a fellaheen, whose bare shoulders and limbs shine like bronze in the

sun, as he stoops to fill the bucket and rises to empty it in the tiny canals that intersect the fields.

Opposite Gebel-el-Ter, a high cliff around which the river turns, there is located a Coptic monastery, and whenever a boat passes, a naked monk swims out begging alms in the name of Christianity. A few miles farther up the river in the face of a cliff are the tombs of Beni-Hassan. On landing to visit them, one is surrounded by a crowd of Arabs said to be the most lawless on the river, and whose village was burned by the government troops in a recent rebellion. It is necessary to guard one's pockets, whips, saddles, and bridles, although two soldiers are stationed here to accompany visitors, one behind, and one leading the way as slowly as possible, repressing every attempt at a gallop, and striking every boy that presses ahead. The tombs with fine protodoric porticoes were the last resting place of the governors and high officials of the old nome of Sah, and the spacious rooms resemble more the ancient dwellings of Troglodytes than tombs. In fact, the Egyptian regarded the tomb as the true and permanent home, and houses as only a temporary abiding place. This accounts for the difference in solidity of construction between the two, a difference so great that no traces of dwellings are found, while countless tombs, cenotaphs, and temples remain.

Around the walls of these tombs are pictured in fast fading colors the different trades and incidents of life, and as usual a colossal portrait of the occupant. There was evidently a cemetery for cats in the neighborhood, for the children surround visitors, offering the mummies for sale.

The village of Antinoe, founded by Hadrian in memory of his beautiful favorite near the spot where he was drowned in the Nile, is the only place of interest until we reach Assioot, one of the largest towns on the river. An American Mission College is doing good work here in educating, if not converting native young men, especially Copts, who form the majority of the pupils. Its influence is very widespread, as most of the graduates return to their native villages as teachers. In the hills behind the town are tombs of dogs and wolves.

There is a perceptible change in the scenery after Assioot; the dom palm appears for the first time, and pyramidal pigeon houses, as large as and much higher than the native hut, are seen in every village. Each day the sky seems to grow clearer and more blue, and a glowing sunset lights up the broad peaceful river, green plain, and yellow Libyan hills.

The temples of Abydos, on the edge of the desert, are within an hour and a half's ride of Bellianah, along narrow paths leading through green fields of wheat and pulse. The general plan of all Egyptian temples is the

An Arabian Village.

same. As a rule they are surrounded by an immense wall preceded by a pylon, connected with a second pylon by an avenue of sphinxes. Obelisks or colossal statues of the founder usually stand before the second pylon, which gave access to a large open court, then to a hall of columns, opening into a second hall surrounded with small dark chambers for various religious uses, and connected with the sanctuary. The walls are always covered with hieroglyphics and sculptured reliefs relating to religious rites, conquests, and incidents in the history of Egyptian rulers.

It is supposed that the inner temple was a mystery to the public, and open only to the priests, king, and a few initiated. The great processions that took place in the outer court and on the roof, were witnessed by the people standing below and outside. Abydos was the capital of a nome, and claimed to possess the tomb of Osiris, which made it a holy city and place of pilgrimage.

The temple at Abydos discovered by M. Mariette in 1859, is mentioned by Strabo as the Memnonium, or palace of Memnon, and differs somewhat in plan from other temples, having seven chambers instead of one sanctuary, each dedicated to a divinity, but as a whole, the temple was dedicated to the great Triad, Osiris, Isis, and Horus. The reliefs, among the finest and most delicately sculptured in Egypt, portray the rites and offerings to each divinity. Here was found in 1864 the famous Table of Abydos, which gives a complete list of kings from the third to the eleventh dynasty, and this, added to one found in 1818 in the temple of Osiris, gives an almost complete list up to the eighteenth dynasty inclusive. These tables have proved most valuable for the study and classification of dynasties. In one room is still visible the scribbling of Phœnician and Greek travelers who visited Abydos over two thousand years ago, and who little dreamed that future ages would see the ruins of their own fair temples scribbled upon by nations then unknown.

The second temple of interest is that of Osiris, now in complete ruin, where Mr. Banks found the table referred to above, and which is now in the British Museum. The temple of Denderah, farther up the Nile and only twenty minutes' ride from its banks, is one of the best preserved in Egypt and one of the richest in sculptured walls. It was founded in the sixth dynasty and dedicated to Hathor, rebuilt under Thothmes III. and again under Ptolemais and Roman rule, but on the original plan. Through a magnificent pylon we enter the pronaos, with twenty-four immense columns, the four sides of the capitals bearing the mask of Hathor. On the ceiling two large reliefs represent Nut, the goddess of heaven, amid sun, moon, and planets, and on the walls are Augustus, Tiberius, Caligula, and Nero, portrayed as Egyptian kings and offering to an Egyptian divinity.

Then comes the festal hall where on certain occasions the statue of the goddess was exhibited; to left and right are small chambers used in connection with religious rites. Then follows the hall of offerings, a central room, and beyond it the sanctuary. The small rooms surrounding the halls were used for keeping the vestments, incense, and sacred boat. A narrow passage leads to the crypt, where the treasures were kept. Two staircases, one on either side, built in the thickness of the wall, lead to the roof. All along these staircases runs a line of reliefs showing the order of the processions which took place on special fête days, chief among these being New Year's, which came on the 19th of July. On the outer wall of the temple are the portraits of Cleopatra and her son Cæsarion, not at all one's ideal of that beautiful queen.

The view from the Nile is very impressive as the valley expands, and we come in sight of the immense obelisks and pylons of Karnak, and the temple of Luxor, and on the other side of the colossal Memnon and ruins of many temples against a background of bare mountains. Here was the hundred-gated Thebes, once the largest and richest city in Egypt, the seat of government, whence great armies went forth to conquer the East. Now all that remain are ruins, in the midst of which the modern village of Luxor is built; but the purity and dryness of the climate have made it quite popular as a winter resort for persons with delicate throats and lungs. Its avenues of acacias and palms, beautiful sunsets, and the inexhaustible interest of its monuments, cannot fail to render it increasingly attractive to artists, archæologists, and travelers.

Landing amid the usual shouting of donkey boys and begging of blind Arabs, we are off at once for Karnak, anxious to see for ourselves if the great Hypostyle Hall de-

serves its fame. What memories of past grandeur fill our minds, as we ride over the dusty path, once a stately avenue a mile long, lined on either side with sphinxes.

The great temple was dedicated to Ammon, the Jupiter of Egypt, supreme at Thebes. Its vastness and extent fill one with amazement even in a general view. We pass through the great pylons into a great court, then through a second pylon into the Hypostyle Hall, one of the most wonderful architectural monuments of antiquity. Its one hundred and thirty-four gigantic columns, its walls, and architraves are covered with religious inscriptions and reliefs. This is followed by other halls and chambers, also by two beautiful red granite obelisks.

The Temple of Karnak.

Across the Nile by boat, then by donkey over a sandy plain, and through a narrow hot valley utterly destitute of vegetation, we reach the Tombs of the Kings, excavated in the solid rock of the Libyan mountains. These excavations are from four to six hundred feet long and descend gradually downward both by stairways and inclined plane. Each tomb has a series of halls and small chambers, whose walls are covered with paintings illustrating many social customs and such religious rites as were connected with burial and the soul's progress in the other world.

The tomb of Rameses II. is more famous from its occupant than from its decoration, which is inferior to that of many others. The mummies from all the royal tombs were removed, it is said, during a war in the twenty-second dynasty, and hidden in a secret vault, where thirty-seven were found by M. Maspero in 1881. They are now exhibited in the Ghizeh Museum. Not far distant are the Tombs of the Queens, of priests, and some private individuals. In nearly all the colors of the paintings are as fresh as if laid on recently, instead of two, three, and even five thousand years ago. The divinity most frequently represented is Anubis, who embalmed Osiris; he is the god of funeral rites and chief guardian of tombs, and also guide of the soul in its passage through the other world. He is represented sometimes as a crouching jackal and sometimes as a man with a jackal's head.

Just below the mountain and built against it in a series of four terraces is the cenotaph temple of Deir-el-Bahari, built by Queen Hatasu and her two brothers. It was approached by a magnificent avenue of sphinxes, ending with two obelisks. The bas-reliefs are very remarkable, depicting the expedition of the warlike queen to the land of Punt, and her return by boat bringing back a captive, the hunchbacked queen of that country, and many strange trees, with roots enveloped in baskets. Queen Hatasu is an interesting character, and the one woman of early Egyptian history who is

more than a name. Her portrait among the reliefs shows a face of great energy and firmness.

A little temple at Deir-el-Medineh, built by Ptolemy Philopater, is interesting from a relief representing the judgment of a soul which is being weighed in the scales, against the ostrich feather of truth; the forty-two judges sit near in a row, while Thoth the scribe writes down on his tablet the verdict. Two evil spirits are near waiting to seize the unfortunate if he be found wanting.

At Medinet Aboo are two temples erected by Thothmes II. and Rameses II., connected with a palace on whose walls is the famous scene of Rameses playing draughts with his daughter. On three sides of a great hall of the temple is sculptured a ceremonial procession showing the order in which it moved. The queen is represented as looking on from a distance, while the king sitting on his throne is borne on the shoulders of attendants, under the shade of two great feather fans held over him by slaves, while musicians precede him blowing horns, and a scribe reads from a scroll. Again he is shown thrusting a golden sickle in a field of wheat, and laying the first sheaf on the altar as an offering, and again letting loose four doves to the four quarters of the earth.

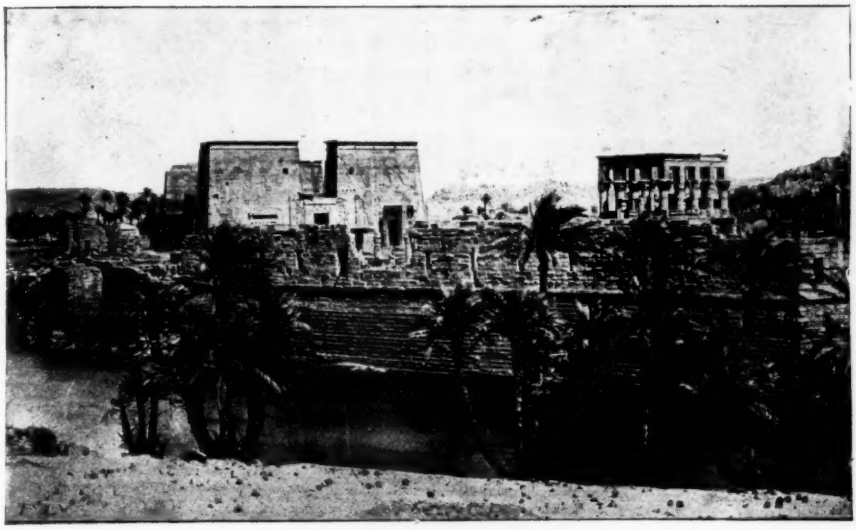
Another temple called the Ramesesum or Memnonium, was built by Rameses II. after his war with the Hittites, which is depicted on its walls, and contained the library over whose door was the inscription since copied by Dr. Schliemann for his library at Athens: "Here is the doctor shop of the soul." By the pylon of this temple lies the colossal statue of Rameses, overthrown by an earthquake and broken at the waist. It measured fifty-two feet, and was of one piece of granite. Millstones have since been cut from it. There is also here a fine hypostyle hall of forty-eight columns, its walls covered with historic reliefs, and ceilings with well preserved paintings of astronomical subjects. Excavations under the direction of M. Grébaut are now being carried on here, so that in two or three years the entire structure will be visible.

The two colossal sitting statues known as the Memnon overlook the rich plain and the ruins of the once splendid city, in which they were among the most remarkable monuments. They represent Amenhotep III., and it is supposed stood at the end of a dromos leading to a magnificent temple of Ammon, founded by him. According to an inscription in Greek and demotic characters, one of the statues gave out musical sounds at the rising of the sun. The ravages of time and an earthquake, have deprived them of any resemblance to a human face, but at a distance they are very imposing, like seated gods with unwearied eyes watching the rising and falling of the Nile, the coming and going of men through endless ages.

We finally bid Luxor and ancient Thebes a reluctant farewell, and continue up the Nile stopping at Esneh to see its temple, which, with the exception of one hall, is buried under the mud houses of the Arab town. It is supposed to date from the Ptolomaic epoch, though cartouches of Claudius, Domitian, Septimus Severus, and Caracalla are visible on its walls. However in this land of hoary antiquity one looks upon such modern dates as too recent to be interesting. The temple of Edfou dedicated under Nectanebo II. to Horus, was excavated by M. Mariette from the sand hills that covered it and is the most perfect example of an Egyptian temple. The whole building freed from sand and rubbish stands in excellent preservation. Among the most curious sculptures is the one showing the sacred boat being carried in procession, which reminds one very much of the Jewish Ark of the Covenant. The sanctuary at the farther end of the temple consists of a great block of granite hollowed out into a little room in which was probably kept the most sacred image of the divinity.

The Memnon Statues.

At Assouan, the ancient Syene, on the frontier of Nubia, we visited the bazaars where ostrich eggs and feathers and Soudanese articles are exhibited for sale, then



The Island of Philæ.

rowed over to Elephantine Island, where there remains little but rubbish and beggars. It is however a very pretty feature in the scene with its palm trees and the broad river flowing around it. As they row, the Nubian sailors sing "Yankee Doodle," ending up with three cheers and a "thank you," suggestive of backsheesh. From Assouan to the Island of Philæ, which lies above the First Cataract, is a long ride over the desert, among Kufic and Arab tombs, past the ancient red granite quarries of Syene, where lies an immense obelisk two-thirds excavated, larger than any standing.

Near the cataract we embarked on little boats, sailing amid pretty islets and hieroglyphic-sculptured rocks to Philæ, the sacred island, where there are several temples, the principal one being the temple of Isis. Philæ, as we approach it, is very beautiful, its tall palms and stately temples reflected in the smooth waters of the Nile. We landed before a court lined with columns almost buried in rubbish, passed through a pylon into another court surrounded by a colonnade, on one side of which is a room called the Mamisi, in which the reliefs refer to the birth and rearing of Horus. A second pylon, with a relief of the king holding a group of his enemies by the hair and about to strike off their heads, leads into the temple of Isis proper, and a hall with fine columns and painted ceilings. On some columns crosses are visible, and there are niches in the wall showing the use made of the hall by early Christians. On the roof is the small Osiris temple, in which are represented his death, funeral, and resurrection.

The view from the top is beautiful and striking; southward the river stretches far away into the mysterious depths of Africa, its shores a waste of sand and rock; northward the foaming, dashing waters of the cataract, and below it the white houses of Assouan under sheltering palms. There is much to think of, as one gazes around, both in the past and the present of Egypt, for the bugle call floating over the water from Assouan reminds one that England has her soldiers stationed here to put down any hostilities of southern tribes.

The cataract is rather a series of rapids interspersed with piles of rocks, but has a tortuous channel up which the natives pull boats by means of ropes. The naked Nubians plunge from the bank into the roaring waters and shoot the rapids on palm logs, scrambling up again dripping and eager for backsheesh.

We turn and begin descending the river, loath to leave this home of azure skies and perpetual sunshine, and to say farewell to the Land of the Pharaohs, with its time-defying monuments and its life-giving Nile.

Mrs. Emily M. Bishop.

Wife of the author, Coleman E. Bishop. Lecturer and Teacher of Physical Culture at Chautauqua, N. Y. Author of "Delsarte for Women," in "The Chautauquan" for September, 1890.

Miss Mary Allen West.

President of the Illinois Woman's Press Association. Editor of "The Union Signal." Author of "Childhood, its Care and Culture," "Manual for W. C. T. U. Schools of Methods," etc

Mrs. Lelia Robinson Sawtelle, LL.B.

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Mrs. Abby Morton Diaz.

President of the Educational and Industrial Union of Boston. Author of "William Henry's Letters to his Grandmother," "The Johnny Spicer Lectures," "The Bybury Papers," etc.

A GROUP OF OUR CONTRIBUTORS.

MRS. LELIA ROBINSON SAWTELLE.

THE FIRST WOMAN LAWYER OF MASSACHUSETTS.

BY MARY A. GREENE, LL.B.

Of the Boston Bar.

LELIA JOSEPHINE ROBINSON was descended from the family of John Robinson, the famous Independent preacher. She was born in Boston and educated in the public schools of that city.

An incident of her school days is an index of her character, as well as a foreshadowing of her future career. One of her schoolmates was accused of whispering and denied it; the teacher becoming angry accused the girl of lying, whereupon Lelia Robinson, thoroughly indignant, arose, and undertook the child's defense, saying that she saw the whole thing and pointed out the real culprit. The teacher immediately punished her for interfering, but ever after Lelia Robinson was called "the lawyer" of the grammar school.

However, it was not law but journalism which attracted her, when at the age of twenty-one it became necessary for her to assist in supporting herself. For five or six years she did excellent work as a reporter for several Boston papers.

It was with no idea of becoming an apostle of woman's rights, for at that time her views were extremely conservative, but merely because she liked the study and felt that a woman could find a place for the successful practice of law, that she decided to devote herself to that profession.

When, in October, 1878, she entered the Boston University Law School, she was alone among a hundred and fifty young men. Two ladies had previously attended the school but had abandoned the course after a year's study. Miss Robinson always spoke with grateful remembrance of the kind treatment she received from her fellow students and the members of the faculty, who, although puzzled to understand why a woman should want to study law, were each and all courteous and helpful. She took a high rank from the first, and in June, 1881, was graduated a Bachelor of Laws with the honorary distinction, *cum laude*.

No woman had, up to that time, applied for admission to the Massachusetts bar, and, in the opinion of most Boston lawyers, including the Dean of the Law School, the admission of women was an impossibility. Nothing daunted, Miss Robinson prepared her petition and a brief setting forth her case, from which the cause was argued before the full bench of the Supreme Court by ex-Attorney-General C. R. Train, on her behalf. After months of waiting, the expected adverse decision was rendered. The opinion, written by the then Chief Justice Horace Gray, was to the effect that under existing laws a woman could not be an attorney-at-law in Massachusetts, but the legislature had a right to pass an act making women eligible. Not long ago Miss Robinson told our present Chief Justice Field that she would have been much disappointed in the court if they had decided otherwise, for she always considered the opinion a sound one as the law then stood. With her strong sense of justice and her clear mind, she could not hold otherwise, even if the result was personally disadvantageous to her. But at the time of the decision the legislature was in session, and she was able to secure the immediate passage of an act making women eligible for admission to the bar on the same terms as men. The governor affixed his signature just in time for her to take the bar examination, and in June, 1882, that which had been believed to be impossible had come to pass, and she was a full-fledged member of the Suffolk County bar.

Immediately after her graduation she had opened an office for consultation and such other work as she could do without membership at the bar, and now she continued the practice with a success equal to that of her classmates who had opened offices in Boston. Her ambition, however, was not satisfied, and in 1884 she went to Seattle, Washington, where business came in more rapidly. At that time women were voters in Washington Territory and served on the jury. Miss Robinson was the only woman lawyer who has ever tried cases before a mixed jury of men and women. Her observations and experiences are related in her article upon "Women Jurors in Washington Territory,"

in the *Chicago Law Times* for November, 1886. Owing to the favorable impressions she received in Seattle, she became a convert to woman suffrage, ever after working for the cause with all the ardent enthusiasm of her nature.

For personal reasons it became necessary for her to return to Boston. She left the West with regret, but she was agreeably surprised on her return to the East to find a decided change of sentiment as to women in the profession, a change which encouraged her and made her subsequent career much pleasanter. Moreover she was no longer alone, for the writer of this article was about to graduate from the Law School when she came back to Boston early in 1888, and in September of that year had opened an office. In February, 1890, Miss Alice Parker joined our ranks, occupying for a time the same office with Miss Robinson, and many were the points of law discussed over our noonday lunches together or in each other's offices.

It was in January, 1888, that Miss Robinson resumed legal practice in Boston, where she continued till her death, doing successfully all kinds of legal work, including the trial of cases in court, a part of the lawyer's life which she especially enjoyed. In April, 1890, she was married to Eli A. Sawtelle, a business man of Boston, and on her wedding trip she was admitted to practice before the Supreme Court of the United States. On her return the Portia Club of women lawyers and students gave her a reception and dinner.

Her marriage made no change in her professional work, except that her summer vacations were longer, and were spent at the old Sawtelle homestead at Amherst, New Hampshire, where she was happy in her housekeeping, her horse and other domestic pets, and her freedom from business cares. Here she died, while yet in early middle life, on August 10, 1891, from an accidental overdose of medicine prescribed for the sleeplessness from which she had suffered ever since a severe attack of "la grippe" last winter.

Mrs. Sawtelle's strong sense of justice and her independence in expressing her views caused her to be misapprehended at times by those who did not know the warmheartedness that lay beneath. She had a consuming enthusiasm for the success of women in the legal profession, and was always devising means to bring the women lawyers of the city into closer and more social relations to each other, and she was as generously delighted at their successes as she would have been at her own.

As a writer she had a clear, bright, simple mode of expression, and her two books, "Law Made Easy," and "The Law of Husband and Wife," are admirably adapted to their purpose of informing ordinary readers upon some of the more important rules of law. Her articles for THE CHAUTAUQUAN on points of law that women should know were among the last of her literary labors.

In June of this year we attended together the commencement exercises of our *alma mater*, and as Mrs. Anna C. Fall received her degree of Bachelor of Laws we rejoiced that next year we should see four ladies come forward at once to receive the degree, and that we had lived to see the day. Yet for her it was to be only a glimpse of the fulfillment of her hopes.

THE HOMES OF POVERTY.

BY EMILY HUNTINGTON MILLER.

BEYOND doubt wholesome ideas of social reform are at work in society like leaven, and out of the fermentation something helpful must certainly come. We look hopefully for coming generations that will be born into better conditions, and begin the race less heavily handicapped, but in the meantime here are generations already born, men, women, and children, who cannot wait for Bellamy's millennium. While we are spinning our theories and mapping out a line of march for the world they crowd upon us, squalid, hungry, hopeless, without a spark of ambition beyond keeping alight from day to day the poor smoky candle of life. What shall we do with them? What *can* we do for this thriftless multitude without waiting radically to reform society?

Three evils that seem almost impossible of

removal oppose the first step toward elevating the home-life of the poor in our cities,—*Ignorance*, *Indifference*, *Poverty*. The last evil being tangible and the only one of the three recognized by the poor as responsible for their sufferings, our efforts too often have begun and ended with an attack upon that. The hopeful feature of social reform to-day is that it recognizes the uselessness of such work and begins patiently at the other end. The worst that slavery can do for a human soul is to destroy the instinct of freedom, and the worst that poverty does for the poor is to destroy the instinct of home, so that food and shelter come to represent all there is of home-life. To re-create this instinct, to awaken the divine sentiment, is the beginning of better things.

That dirt and disorder are positive evils like cold and hunger, and that ignorance takes heavy tithes from their pitiful resources, are truths that must be seen, though never so dimly, before anything substantial is gained. Clubs, societies, and organizations can never accomplish this; it must be done by individual work in individual homes. While organized benevolence puts opportunity within their reach, personal influence, sympathy, and instruction alone can induce them to make use of it. The blind hatred of the poor toward the rich will never be overcome until the hand stretched out in proffered help has in it something more than money; until it is the hand, not of a society but of an individual. It ought not to be expected that the poor should be eager to avail themselves of helps toward better living. Because of ignorance they are indifferent, and only patient persistence will awaken in them any desire to better themselves by their own efforts.

Twenty wives, mothers, and housekeepers, taking each under her personal charge one home of poverty and ignorance, talking with the mother as friend to friend and bringing each her own experience to the help of her less fortunate sister, will accomplish more than a score of Dorcas societies by simply extending relief or the most enticing invitations to club-rooms and lectures. The mother who has had her interest awakened in this way will be drawn to listen with profit to talks upon the care of her children in sickness or health, the way to buy, make, or mend, the value of fresh air and cleanliness, and the importance of a thousand things to which she never gave a thought. Make a successful attack upon ignorance and indifference will be vanquished; rout indifference and there will be hope of a successful attack upon poverty.

This work cannot be done by women alone; our business men must do more than give. This personal sympathy and interest is as necessary for the husband as for the wife and the thriftless home cannot be greatly elevated until its joint proprietors are agreed in the work. Our schemes of benevolence and reform have undoubtedly been too suggestive of the Welsh fable of the robin carrying water drop by drop to quench the fires of Tophet. Let us by all means make trial of some magnificent scheme that shall take no account of millions, but let it be millions of men as well as money, not here and there a worker with a special mission, while the rest look on and applaud, but *every* man and woman with the universal commission to preach the gospel of brotherhood by living it.

An essential thing toward helping the poor is to teach them to combine their resources. The sympathy of the poor for each other is proverbial, but while the man shares his crust with his needy neighbor, it seems never to occur to him that by uniting with half a dozen neighbors he might divide the cost of his loaves. The waste of the poor is enormous from not knowing how to buy and prepare their food. The practical experience of soup-kitchens and cheap lunch-counters proves that it is possible to provide good nourishing food at a less outlay than that upon which the poor starve, and still leave a small margin for profits. Charity must bring this possibility within the reach of the poor, but patience and persistence would make it self-supporting, taking laundry work, bread and soup making, and many other operations out of the crowded rooms where human beings must eat, sleep, and live, into common kitchens where for actual cost to the individual the work could be better done. Laundries where, for a small rental, hot water, tubs, and other implements are supplied, have proved a success, as have kitchens where bread, soup, and cheap meats were sold, with instructions in their preparation to afternoon and evening classes. The proper cooking of food is impossible to the woman whose work takes her from home through the day, who must economize in fuel, or in whose one room the continued heat would be insupportable. But it is altogether

possible that coming home from her day's work she may have, ready cooked, a wholesome supper for the same amount she would expend upon the raw material, and here it seems to me is the sphere of co-operative housekeeping, and not among the rich.

The condition of the homes of the poor might be improved by a vigorous enforcement of sanitary laws already existing, but allowed to become a dead letter because it is nobody's business to attend to their enforcement, and this is but one more illustration of the necessity of personal enlistment. One has only to look at the grand results already achieved by the Working Girls' Clubs, results widening and extending into unthought-of triumphs, to see what may be accomplished by patient individual effort. Into these homes must come the nurse with her trained hand to care for the sick, to rout dirt and disorder, and bring in sweetness and light; the visitor armed with sympathy and tact; the friend to counsel, teach, and advise. A clean floor, a bright window, a mended garment, speak with an eloquence that commands an audience; and the woman who comes to the tired housekeeper to lighten her labors while she gives sympathizing ear to her trials has her hand on the lever whose lifting power is beyond any other.

I might fill my allotted space with detailed methods, but I prefer to confine myself to principles. To awaken the home instinct; to dispel indifference by proving the possibility of better things; to enlighten ignorance and stop its waste; to teach and to make possible the combination of forces; to execute in their behalf existing law, and to turn against their ignorant short-sightedness governmental authority—these are the lines along which help must come, and all successful methods must be based upon personal interest and personal effort on one side, to enlist personal interest and effort on the other.

PREPARED FOOD ON A SCIENTIFIC PLAN.

BY HELEN M. ELLIS.

DURING the month just past, Boston has been flocking to an exhibition of a novel and in many ways very suggestive character. In walking past the different exhibits at the Health Food Exposition, from the children singing over their kitchen garden work to the display of the Helvetia Company, and from the dainty jellies and pickles prepared in a private kitchen to a pyramid of canned soups, the impression grew that the exhibition represented a very material contribution toward the solution of domestic problems and certain social problems as well. It showed something of the attention now given to the preparation of food products, and it was noticeable that a large proportion of the exhibits were of foods ready prepared for the table. That is to say, co-operative housekeeping, in the form in which co-operation in that field has been successful, made a brave showing. For that is what the multiplication of foods either ready prepared for consumption or with the work of preparing them for the table reduced to the minimum practically is; it is simply the yielding of that department of domestic economy to the modern way of doing things.

The work of the kitchen, least modern in method of all household work, is gradually becoming specialized, to the great saving of time and improvement in results. For instance, plum pudding for dinner is to be had at the cost of no little time and anxiety as to the result, if it is prepared at home, but from the Franco-American Company one may buy a certain tin can, put it into hot water for an hour and a half, then cut out its bottom and there is a plum pudding ready to serve. This same company puts up a variety of soups of most delicious flavor, which need no other preparation than the immersion of the can in hot water for a sufficient time to warm the contents. They have game, too, of a half dozen varieties, for *patés*. The pastry can be bought at any bakers, and the resulting dish is one far beyond the skill of the cook in the average American kitchen. This same firm puts up broths and beef tea for invalids, and also soups for their use, like those put up for the table, but without seasoning. A jar of one of their extracts held against the light, is as clear as a jewel.

Not only have the mince pies of our forefathers come down to us, but also the tradi-

tion of the labor of making them. Then the coming of Thanksgiving meant several days of chopping and mixing and baking. Happily that work has now been largely delegated to some one outside of the household, and Dougherty has recently added mince meat of an excellent quality to the prepared foods which he has on the market. A ten-cent package contains the material for two pies. There is also a good preparation of beef extract which makes bouillon an easy addition to the bill of fare, and also serves as the basis for innumerable soups and sauces. In fact, the supply of canned soups is large. Cowdrey has some twenty varieties, many of a kind quite beyond the skill of an ordinary cook, and Huckins has some seventeen. These last are prepared by the man who was for many years the *chef* of Parker, the famous Boston caterer and hotel keeper, and his skill is thereby at the service of whoever will.

The hesitancy of housekeepers to try prepared foods of these kinds is partly due to their supposed expense, and partly because the old way, from its familiarity, seems to have some mysterious virtue which no other way could possess. But home cooking is not, as a rule, characterized by great exactness, nor can it command great skill in its preparation. The clothing of the family was once made in the household, from the weaving of the cloth to the sewing on of the buttons, but we are better clothed in every way now, when such work is in a comparatively few skilled hands, and there is no reason why the methods that have superseded the family loom and spinning wheel in the preparation of the family clothing should not result as well when applied to food.

Many of the prepared foods are not what the ordinary family needs for everyday consumption, but among those at the Health Food Exhibition were two, at least, admirably suited to just that purpose. One was an Armour preparation, "luncheon beef," which lends itself alike to the hap-hazard meals of the picnicking or camping party and to the everyday demands of the home. It is a canned beef of excellent flavor, firm and smooth, and with a good deal of the meat jelly about it. Not only can it be used cold, but can be made the basis of a dozen easily prepared hot dishes. Another food preparation which ought to help dispose of the difficulty of providing desserts, comes from Baltimore in the shape of "fruit puddine." To the flavored powder of which it consists must be added sugar and hot milk, in which it is stirred for three minutes. It is then poured into a mold to cool, and the result is a delicate blanc-mange-like dessert. It comes with nine different flavorings, and gives as nice a "sweet dish" as an hour's labor would ordinarily be required to supply.

It is this question of labor which especially makes the question of prepared foods worth considering. It has been said that women and farmers are the two remaining classes whose work has not been specialized. Of the women, this is ceasing to be true. Women's chance in the world is to-day no small one, and they are following it up with energy. One of the questions of the hour is to maintain the balance between the old duties and the work which the new opportunities open up. The answer is to come partly through a change in household methods—just some such change as these foods ready to one's hand indicate. We shall have specialists serving the kitchen, as we now have them serving other departments, and in proportion as this special service is perfected will woman's individual talents in other directions be free to develop.

According to one authority upon the question of domestic service—*the* one authority, we might say, since Prof. Lucy Salmon of Vassar College has given the subject the first and most thorough and scholarly consideration it has ever received—it is by this specialization of household work that we may look for an improvement upon the present condition of affairs. The servant girl problem is to be helped toward a solution by having "not more household drudges, but less household drudgery." The distressed housekeeper would no doubt consider a can of beef or a package of "puddine" an entirely inadequate remedy for the state of affairs which disturbs her, but they are at least an alleviation. They help to give her command of the situation, and to set free that power for other things which is now too often swamped by the demands of housekeeping.

For this reason this Food Exhibit had an especial appeal to whoever had the interests of women particularly in mind. It was, in a measure, an answer to the demands of changing social conditions,—an answer full of suggestiveness and worthy of consideration.

WOMEN AS ASTRONOMERS.

BY ESTHER SINGLETON.

SECOND PAPER.

ONE of the first American women to obtain celebrity as an astronomer was Maria Mitchell, who was born in Nantucket, Mass., August 1, 1818. She was the daughter of William Mitchell, an astronomer, by whom she was taught, and, after receiving her education, aided him in his work. At the age of eighteen she became librarian of the Nantucket Athenæum, remaining there for twenty years, devoting her leisure to her favorite science. She made a specialty of the study of nebulæ, made careful observations, and searched for comets. She discovered several nebulæ and found a comet on October 1, 1847, which discovery was confirmed by her father, Professor W. C. Bond of Harvard, and several Italian astronomers.

The king of Denmark presented her with a gold medal for this, and the republic of San Marino in Italy had a copper medal struck in her honor. During the rest of her life she discovered seven other comets. She made a trip to Europe in 1858, and visited the family of Sir John Herschel, and was entertained by the distinguished English astronomer, Sir George B. Airy. She was received by Leverrier in Paris and by Humboldt in Berlin where she also met Encke, whose name is associated with a remarkable comet.

During her absence Miss Elizabeth Peabody of Boston and other friends raised a subscription fund and presented her on her return with a fine telescope, which she had needed in Nantucket. When her father removed to Lynn, Mass., she took the instrument with her. In 1865 she became Professor of Astronomy at Vassar College, remaining there until 1888, when owing to failing health she resigned. For many years she was also director of the college observatory. Her last days were spent in Lynn, where she died June 28, 1889. A reception was given in her honor by the alumnæ of Vassar in New York City in 1889, but she was not able to be present. At that meeting a chair of astronomy in Vassar was endowed. Hanover College gave her the degree LL.D. in 1853, and she was the first woman elected to the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. In 1850 she was made a member of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, of which she became a Fellow in 1874. She presided over the American Association for the Advancement of Women in Syracuse, N.Y., in 1875 and in Philadelphia in 1876. Miss Mitchell's last years were spent in studying sun-spots and the satellites of Jupiter, and she also computed the ephemeris for the "American Nautical Almanac." Her publications consist of scientific papers. She was fond of saying, "I was not born with much genius, but with great persistency," which perhaps describes her character, her endowment, and her success.

In 1881 Miss Mary W. Whitney was called to Vassar to be Miss Mitchell's assistant, and on her resignation was appointed professor of astronomy and director of the college observatory. She was graduated at Vassar in 1868, having studied under Miss Mitchell, with whom she observed the solar eclipse of 1869. In 1872 she assisted her in determining the latitude of the Vassar College Observatory, after which she attended lectures by Professor Benjamin Pierce at Harvard, and, going to Europe in 1874, continued her studies in astronomy and mathematics at the University of Zurich.

Another astronomer of reputation is Miss Mary E. Byrd, a graduate of Ann Arbor, and now director of the observatory of Smith College. She is an able observer, and in the summer of 1888, with the aid of Miss Whitney of Vassar, determined the latitude of her observatory in Northampton, Mass.

Wellesley College has no observatory, but there are classes in physical astronomy conducted by Miss Sarah F. Whiting, whose work is chiefly that of an instructor. Her pupils do much laboratory work in spectrum analysis, and make observations through a small telescope. Miss Hayes has charge of classes in mathematical astronomy in Wellesley, and her students spend much time in computing the orbits of comets.

Dr. W. L. Elkin of the Yale observatory has a computer, Miss Margaretta Palmer, whose work is highly valued, and Miss Mulock has done some clever work under Professor W. A. Rogers at Cambridge.

Miss Dorothea Klumpke of San Francisco bids fair to become an efficient astronomer. She is now in Paris studying diligently at the Astronomical Observatory. She frequently publishes her observations of asteroids, translates many foreign articles for the "Bulletins of the International Astrophotographic Congress," and writes for the *Bulletin Astronomique* of Paris. Her sister, also in Paris, is a rising artist, who exhibited a picture showing talent, at the Salon of 1890.

Miss Lamb, a graduate of the University of Wisconsin, became an assistant in the observatory in Madison, and observed carefully and well. She was married to another assistant there, Prof. Milton Updegraff, and went with him to the National Observatory of the Argentine Republic at Cordoba, where they both achieved success. Returning from South America, Professor Updegraff was made director of the State University of Missouri at Columbia, where Mrs. Updegraff is a valued assistant.

Miss C. R. Willard of Carlton College observatory, Northfield, Minn., who has been a diligent observer, is now in charge of the time service; and Miss Coralynn Allen, professor of astronomy at the Bay City High School, Mich., should also be mentioned.

The observatory of Harvard College was one of the first, if not the first, institution of its kind to employ women regularly in computations and reductions. A large part of its work has been done in this way during the past twenty years, and at the present time fifteen of its assistants are women. A great portion of their time is spent in routine computations under the direction of the astronomers by whom the observations are made. But besides this, a large part of the work described below is of the nature of original research.

Miss Anna Winlock, daughter of the late Professor Winlock, Director of the Harvard College Observatory, aided in the computation and reduction of the observations made with the meridian circle from 1876 to 1890. She was also engaged in reductions upon the catalogue of zone stars between 50 and 55 degrees of declination—a work that was undertaken by the observatory in 1870. Miss Winlock has taken part in the meridian circle observations of close polar stars and the meridian circle observations of stars near the South Pole, the results of which have been published in the annals of the Harvard College Observatory. She has also made with Professor William A. Rogers, now of Colby University, a catalogue of one hundred and thirty polar stars for the epoch 1875.0, resulting from all the available observations made between 1860 and 1885, and reduced to the system of the Catalogue of Publication XIV. of the *Astronomische Gesellschaft*, which was printed in the Memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences (Vol. XI., part IV., No. 5).

The application of photography to astronomical work has opened a wide field for the employment of women, and at this observatory there are seven women assistants under the superintendence of Mrs. Fleming, now engaged in studying the photographs. It is found that the work ordinarily done by men at night with a telescope may be done even better in the daytime by women examining photographs with a microscope or magnifying glass. New discoveries are thus made, and can be verified without waiting for clear weather. The condition of the stars in the past is studied in the photographs, and the means of doing this more perfectly increase each year with the number of accumulated photographs.

Mrs. Fleming is a native of Dundee, Scotland, and after teaching there for several years and passing brilliant examinations, came to the United States and has been employed at the Harvard College Observatory for the past ten years. She now has charge of nearly all of the reductions of the photographic work, of the reductions of the photometric work done in Peru, and of the meteorological reductions. While Professor E. C. Pickering has planned the following pieces of work, all the measurements and reductions have been made by Mrs. Fleming or under her direction: "Detection of New Nebulæ by Photography," "Twelve new Nebulæ Discovered in the Constellation of Orion from an Examination of Photographic Plates," "A Photographic Determination of the Brightness of the Stars," which includes a catalogue of 1,009 stars, 947 within one degree of the North Pole; a "Catalogue of 420 Stars in the Pleiades"; and a "Catalogue of 1,113 Stars within two Degrees of Equator" (8,761 measurements were involved in this work); "The Draper Catalogue of Stellar Spectra," which gives the spectra of 10,351 stars, derived from measures of 28,266 spec-

tra; and "Description and Discussion of the Draper Catalogue," which includes results of 13,658 measures. The above publications fill about six hundred quarto pages of print and involve over 50,000 measures.

Mrs. Fleming has also contributed numerous articles to astronomical journals regarding her discoveries of twelve new variable stars and of nineteen spectra consisting mainly of bright lines.

Miss Anna C. Maury, a niece of Dr. Henry Draper, has for the last three years been engaged in a detailed study of the spectra of the brighter stars, forming a part of the work of the Henry Draper Memorial. She has examined, arranged, and classified two or three thousand photographs of stellar spectra, some of them showing as many as five hundred lines each.

This work when completed will fill a volume of the Annals. Among the interesting results has been the remarkable discovery that the star B Aurigæ is a binary, having a period of only four days.

Two important departments of the observatory, the Henry Draper Memorial and the Bruce Department, were established by the gifts of Mrs. Henry Draper and Miss C. W. Bruce, both of New York City. Mrs. Draper, a sister of the late Cortlandt Palmer, had no original training, but became interested in the work of her husband, Dr. Henry Draper. Her brilliant intellect, genuine interest, and enthusiasm contributed indirectly to his fame, for she aided him in his work, and he frequently intrusted to her deft fingers the more delicate manipulation of his sensitive instruments in the observatory at Hastings. After the death of this distinguished astronomer, she made one of the most beautiful and practical tributes ever given to the memory of man or woman. Sending all of his valued telescopes and astronomical apparatus to the Harvard College observatory, she endowed the Henry Draper Memorial in connection with it where the special work that occupied Dr. Draper's last years—the photographic spectra of stars—might be continued under the most favorable conditions.

Mrs. Draper is a member of the Astronomical Society of the Pacific, and her name is honored by men of science in all parts of the globe. Few of those who meet Mrs. Draper in society or who share the gracious hospitality of her elegant homes in New York City and at Dobbs Ferry, realize the extent of her gifts to science.

The results of the work of the Henry Draper Memorial form a catalogue of the photographic spectra of more than 10,000 stars. This has been published by Professor Pickering under the title of "The Draper Catalogue" (Cambridge, 1890). It also contains the details of their measurement and reduction. Nearly all of the stars observed are north of the declination 25 degrees, and the total number of spectra measured is 28,266.

Mrs. Draper has also founded the Henry Draper Medal of the National Academy of Sciences which is given for brilliant work in solar physics.

Miss C. W. Bruce, an elderly lady and an invalid, has lately given the sum of $6,000 to aid in astronomical research. To make it of the greatest benefit to science the amount will be divided into sums of about $500 each and given to various institutions and individual astronomers to aid in their work and important publications. She is also a member of the Astronomical Society of the Pacific. Miss Bruce's chief gift to astronomy is the sum of $50,000, which she presented to the observatory of Harvard College for the purpose of constructing a photographic telescope with an objective of about 24-inch aperture, and a focal length of eleven feet. It is expected that the Bruce photographic telescope will exert an important influence in astronomy by the large amount of material which it will furnish. It will differ from other telescopes in the construction of its object glass which will be a compound lens of the form used by photographers and known as the portrait lens. Its advantage will be found in photographing faint stars and nebulæ. "A telescope of this form, used several years in Cambridge with great success, is now in Peru, photographing the southern stars for the Draper observatory, and as this records objects too faint to be visible in a 15-inch refractor a corresponding advantage is anticipated from increase of the aperture to twenty-four inches." Charts of the entire heavens will be made with the Bruce photographic telescope recording all stars in the sky down to the faint twinkling points of the fourteenth magnitude. The telescope will soon be finished and the work begun, and this $50,000, so generously given to an observatory already in full activity, will be of more use to science than $250,000 to found a new observatory.

THE QUALIFICATIONS REQUISITE FOR TRAINED NURSES.

BY LISBETH D. PRICE.

THAT a nurse's life is from the world a thing apart, will be found true by all who adopt this profession. And no less true is it that although the whole life may be given to the work, it will not reach a large measure of success unless it be given in a sweet spirit of obedience to the command, 'Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart and soul and mind and strength and thy neighbor as thyself.'

Until the nurse comprehends and acknowledges that this high standard must indeed be hers to follow every day to the best of her ability, she is unfit to enter life in a hospital. The terms "perfect nurse" and "perfect woman" are synonomous, the one even as the other, impossible; but, as perfection is not reached in this world, something below that perfect state gives satisfaction in every profession upon our imperfect earth. It is more than likely that a perfect human life, could it exist as it did eighteen hundred years ago, would be misunderstood now as then; none the less we are commanded to "go on and on unto perfection."

Nowhere in the world as in the hospital, with its many trials, disappointments, and sacrifices which must be enacted daily, almost hourly, is there as great need of the combination of virtues enumerated by a modern preacher as forming what he has aptly named the spectrum of love, the rays from which a white life is composed. He says: "This spectrum of love contains the following nine colors: patience, kindness, generosity, humility, courtesy, unselfishness, good temper, guilelessness, and sincerity." The argument is conclusive, therefore, that all nurses must be Christians. Other qualifications, such as culture and education, may vary according to the position the nurse wishes to fill in her profession after receiving her diploma.

These positions are covered chiefly by the three grades following:

(1) The chief nurse, or superintendent of hospital. Her work includes the general management of the hospital, the housekeeping, the training of the nurses, the supervision of and attendance upon all operations, and the general charge and responsibility of the wards containing the patients.

(2) The head nurse, or staff nurse. She has charge of the nurses and the care of the patients in the wards of one department or floor. She must be a graduate and is in the employ of the hospital.

(3) The probationer, or ward nurse. Her training is obtained by staying in the hospital a year or more, during which time she spends a prescribed number of months in each department, and while there is under the direction of the head nurse. She also has charge of the patients in one ward or of half of a ward, there being at times two probationers in one ward. These nurses after graduating, rise to the position of head and chief nurse or, leaving the hospital, become the type of nurse which constitutes the next grade.

(4) The private nurse. The qualifications of this class need not necessarily be of so high an order as that of the other two types, as will be seen from the remainder of this explanation of the different trained nurses.

The chief nurse must be an excellent judge of human nature, for no college faculty has to deal with more types of character than the chief nurse in a hospital. To her comes the angel that she "entertains unawares," to her also comes the "wolf in sheep's clothing," to her in fact comes every conceivable type of womankind, and she must know how to choose from them those who will prove a credit to the training school under her charge. When she fails to do this she plunges herself, her nurses, and her patients into an ocean of trouble. In general the chief nurse fixes a standard in regard to a number of qualifications, such as education, religion, disposition, manners, and general behavior. Before the month of probation is over, the chief nurse concludes from the reports of her head nurses and from her own observation if the applicant should be kept at all and, if allowed to finish her course, whether she is to be trained with the idea of becoming a private nurse, a hospital nurse, or a superintendent of an institution such as the one in which she was trained.

A properly managed training school is not

unlike a military school, everything is done with promptness and precision. The probationer corresponds relatively with the private in soldiery. In the model training school, no matter what her position may have been in the outer world, how wealthy, how aristocratic, how cultured, she must begin at the lowest round of the ladder and rise according to her merit. From the first day to the last her training is a climbing upward. The first month is spent in cleaning floors, waiting on patients, and cooking food for the sick. If she proves a stoic as well as a philosopher she rises by her last month to the position of leading others, to that, in fact, of the captain; but if she "despises the day of small things," she is more than likely to leave the hospital at the end of her probation.

THE ART OF VISITING.

BY KATE GANNETT WELLS.

VISITING is a fine art yet many people practice it as a trade, hostesses and guests degenerating into employers and employees. Newspaper syndicates announce the arrival and departure of guests and celebrities are subsidized for the honor of their entertainers, who vie with each other in recognition of these society seedlings. These again by careful transplanting from one to another house, blossom into the full-grown variety of the distinguished guest. "The honor of your company" is requested for different reasons, varying according to the social and moral status of both parties. Some visitors reflect distinction on their host, others are asked for sweet pity's sake, and a few for true love.

Nowadays people are seldom invited as general help, though they are expected to be agreeable, interested in children, somewhat useful, and occasionally to keep their room tidy. Its order at least proves their social education. When toilet tables and clothes are left in confusion, a visitor is either careless or snobbish. There is no reason why the guest should cease to be a lady or gentleman by indulging in disorder because the hostess has many maids. Outside of one's own room there is seldom more for a visitor to do than to arrange the flowers for the hostess, to send her a "bread and butter" letter when one has left her house, and a present on Christmas proportionate to the length of the visit. The old-fashioned hospitality which made every one welcome because every one was somebody, though largely steeped in conventionalism, still crops out. There is many a family without a skeleton in whose home it is blessedness to linger and around whose table honest mirth makes a sweeter record for the memory than all the famous table talk of the great wits. There are still people who are willing to let their lives instead of their *bonsmots*, speak for them, and who are happy because they live and love. There is yet many a home where the good-night is spoken in tones which tell of gratitude for another day spent together, where the children care more to watch the sunset than to preserve the stylish order of the evening meal, and where the mother's seat is placed so that she, too, can see the yellow radiance which pales the tawny nasturtiums on her tea table.

The time, servants, carriages, horses, paper, and postage stamps of the hostess do not, at least in this country, belong to the visitor, who nevertheless does owe his time to his entertainer. A generous tact leaves both at ease to appropriate unto themselves hours of solitude. The visitor who is "forever around" is as much a bore as the hostess who intrudes at all hours into her guest's room. What each has a right to demand is hospitality to the other's interests, hobbies, or prejudices. It is the well-turned compliment, the honest admiration for a dress or a bit of embroidery, the sincere appreciation of another's work in literature, philanthropy, business, family, children, housekeeping, which make a visit a happy event for both visitor and visited. Still little things set one awry, as when the hostess offers no sympathy for an imaginary or slight pain or when the guest says the ice cream is quite good, but that she might have told her entertainer a way in which to make it delicious.

First impressions count for much. A welcome should be cordial, deferential, as if in acceptance of a favor. Response should be

equally glad yet timid, not as if the guest at once owned the new abode and its piano. A visit that begins on both sides with graceful cordiality, progresses toward eager sympathy, continues in hearty approval, and ends in enduring friendship.

Much depends on the hour of arrival. The middle of the day is always a bad time. No one then is at leisure. Just before the evening tea or dinner is best, when it is within the power of the family to assume an apparent ease. Some people arrive in a free and easy manner, are breathless in their first conversation and then collapse. Woe to such a visit. It is far safer first to take one's bearings, to reserve one's anecdotes, and to wax brilliant day by day. Other guests begin aggressively and remain with reformatory intent instead of accepting the customs of the house as if they were correct, at least for the time being. Not so thought Mrs. Du Loup, who accepted the shelter of a friend's house for the night. On entering the library the stranger was introduced by the lady to her husband, who rose in welcome. "Have I come to the house of a man who smokes?" were the guest's first words. "Madam, you have," he replied as he replaced his cigar, which he had removed from his mouth at her entrance. "Smoking is unhealthy, unmoral," she continued and was interrupted in her dissertation only by the insistence of the hostess that the lady (!) must be tired and should seek her room.

Most families have hobbies, a few have principles. A visitor should conform herself to both as far as her mental honesty permits, but if she must decline the wine, the theater, dance, French novel, her manner should convey no reproach upon those whose hospitality she accepts. Often guests act as if on a mission, others as if they were social scavengers for news or intended to exercise the right of squatter sovereignty, whereas a guest should supply her own peculiarities in tonics and cosmetics and confine her requests to hot water. Some people even bring their own books lest literary provender fail, and as apology leave their paper volumes behind them. But that which is specifically admissible for a student is in as bad taste for average readers as it is for an epicure in fine linen to bring her own towels and pillow-cases.

There is much to be said about the practice of feeing. Certainly when a visitor requires much personal attention or because of her presence much social entertainment is given, there is no reason why she should not show her recognition of the extra work caused through her if not directly by her. A modern servant in an average family can hardly be expected to burnish the silver toilet articles which every young lady now carries with her, though the maid (or the hostess) can keep the little lamp for frizzles provided with alcohol. Whenever a guest is either so careless or so stern-minded that she fails in practical evidence of her gratitude to the domestics, little after-glow in the kitchen follows her departure; nor is her second visit an easy one for the hostess. A small fee is a graceful act of kindness, though if too large it becomes pretentious and establishes comparisons with the gift of the next visitor, who may have but small means.

Punctuality is one of the preservers of family peace. A guest who is late even once a day should never receive a second invitation. If it is awkward to find an entire family awaiting one's appearance before the morning prayers are repeated or before the children can seat themselves at table, it is still more incongruous for the hostess to attempt a smile as if the tardiness were not vexatious.

A skillful entertainer invites her friends by detachments, as a single guest consumes more of her time than two or three, who because of their number can amuse each other. The relays of arrivals should be well-mated, and the girlish clannishness which selects one friend and clings to her alone, should be avoided as much as a sirocco, for it destroys the general vitality of the home. It is cruelty to ask a plain girl with a pretty one or a celebrity with a dunce. Persons with differing interests but mutual politeness set off each other, the visitors unconsciously becoming the hostesses as they lead in repartee, for the mind of an American entertainer is always fencing with material perplexities, and nerves give way when the visits carelessly overlap each other.

A capable visitor is always welcome. She can be both draper and milliner, can mend gloves with three-cornered needles, and make herself so necessary to the good times of every one that her annual presence is desired. The dearest guests one can have are the placid grandfather whose mere presence is a benediction, the beloved aunt who is unobservant of the family caprices, the middle-aged cousin

who silently assumes the burdens of the household, and the frolicsome nephews and nieces who rejuvenate the home.

There are two inadmissible practices which good breeding forbids, (1) a flirtation with the host's son, the visitor having a right in her turn not to be annoyed by an offer of marriage while she is a visitor, and (2) the narration of any folly or weakness which may have occurred in the family of one's host. If the possessor of cheap brilliancy is willing to shine at the expense of other persons she should never be trusted to make a week's visit. The private life of a family is its confessional, where good intentions should be taken for granted and peccadillos left without remark. When a guest knows how to find the portly business man as interesting as the literary worker and to the tiresome, patient mother gives an appreciative, listening ear and neither snubs the boys nor gives good advice to the girls—then such a guest like Abou Ben Adhem will find her reward. If it is a delight to visit notable persons and replenish one's stock of stories, it is an honor to be wanted as a guest by simple-hearted, good persons. And it is always instructive to visit anywhere, for the lessons of life are often learned through contrasts.

Many people are too fearful to indulge in simple hospitality and yet can afford no other or they make such a labor of their courtesies that a guest never cares to return. Cordiality is the indispensable ingredient of hospitality and when it is refined rather than boisterous the appointments of the house and the number of courses count but little.

Tact and sympathy are the two qualities which the guest must possess in large measure; tact which gives the needed action or word, and sympathy which enwraps the interests of another in an atmosphere of appreciative regard. The art of visiting lies in putting a family in better humor with itself, in making its life gayer and sweeter, truer and wider. Then each visit for visitor and visited wears its distinctive badge. If one has been full of "in memoriam" tenderness, another has been filled with clarion calls to present duty; if one has been rich in repartee, another has been laden with instruction; if one has been fragrant with little deeds of humble love, another has shone with princely gifts. So in each visit sympathy and tact unlock the golden treasures of human thought and act, until each heart is rested by the mutual offerings of true appreciation of each other's best.

WOMEN IN THE LAND OFFICE.

BY ELLA LORAINE DORSEY.

IN 1859, ten years after the organization of the General Land Office at Washington, D. C., appears on the rolls, for the first time, the name of a woman—Martha M. Read. She was appointed from Georgia at a salary of $600 a year, and assigned to the Division of Surveys. But her work, and that of several others whose names have never appeared on the records, was sent to her home to be done,—the gentle device of chivalrous men to save delicate women from the hardships of weather and the unaccustomed associations and surroundings of a public office.

But the world moves fast in war times and, in '61, widows and orphans multiplied as battle followed battle. Fortunes, too, were lost with frightful rapidity and completeness, and above the wailing for death and ruin came the piercing cry for bread from those whose breadwinners were gone to their last bivouac in

"——the low green tent,
Whose curtain never outward swings."

So here as elsewhere the women came to the front in the twofold capacity of wage-earners and home makers; appointment followed appointment; documents were entrusted to them of too great value to be sent hither and yon, and they were called into the office in 1869. Now one hundred and sixty-eight of them are scattered generously through the Chief Clerk's Division, the Recorder's Division, and the Divisions of Public Lands, Private Lands, Public Surveys, Railroads, Preemption, Contests, Swamp Lands, Draughting, Accounts, Mineral Claims, and Special Service.

Among the early appointments several are still at their desks, notably Miss Lumsdon, Miss Hopperton, Mrs. Parker, and Miss Mary S. Lauck; the first named posting all entries,

the second being the office correspondent, the third a copyist, and the fourth virtually a chief of division, for she has the Florida desk.

There are more commensurate salaries paid to women in the Land Office than in any other bureau under the Government, and the promotions are based very strictly on record and merit. The highest salary, $1,600, is given to Miss Strong of Vermont, who is the examiner of special agents' accounts. She is possessed of singular ability and aptness, and the confidence reposed in her is unbounded.

The duties of the office are onerous and require distinctive qualifications, as a glance at the following list made up of names chosen here and there at random will show:

Miss Mills, has the Arkansas desk. She and Miss Lauck are the only two so assigned. Miss Hollingworth examines and acts upon mineral patents. Miss Campbell records and passes upon war losses. Miss Cox audits all the accounts of the office with the U. S. Treasury. Mrs. Walsh has entire charge of the certified copy desk—a responsible position. Mrs. F. H. Smith of Minnesota is registering clerk. Mrs. Niles transmits land patents. Miss Slosson has charge of all appeals to the secretary. Mrs. Guyton writes and records land patents. Mrs. Pearce is *ex parte* clerk. Miss Torrey has all appeals to the register and receiver. Miss Patterson is one of the examining board which decides the issuance of land patents; and so on down a column of names, many of which have echoed like trumpets across the fields of our country's wars and in the halls of her courts and legislatures.

Among these we find Mrs. Grigsby, a granddaughter of Governor Shelby of Kentucky, and once the second richest woman in her native state. Their plantation included three thousand four hundred acres, and was one of the show-places of the surrounding country. It bore the suggestively hospitable name of "Travelers' Rest." And what travelers have rested under its roof tree! President Madison, President Jackson, Lafayette, Gen. Rogers Clarke, Gen. Wilkinson, Gen. Scott, Aaron Burr, Amos Kendall, Henry Clay, Felix Grundy, Thomas Hart Benton, and scores more of the men who "were giants in those days."

Mrs. Grigsby is one of those who saw her beautiful home swept away in the war-tide after the death of her husband, a Virginian who followed the fortunes of the Confederacy and served with distinction. But she rarely lets a plaint pass her sad lips, and is happy in her little home in Washington where she lives with her two daughters—one a fair gentle invalid, the other a spirited girl, who inherits much of her great-grandfather's ability.

An interesting name is that of Mrs. Katherine Hamlin Lyman, a cousin of the late Hannibal Hamlin, and the representative of three generations of distinguished physicians. She is also the widow of a physician, Doctor William Cullen Lyman (United States Navy), who was the kinsman and namesake of William Cullen Bryant and a near relative of the famous Doctor H. M. Lyman, Professor of Nervous Diseases at Rush Medical College. Still another physician of note is related to this brilliant and agreeable woman—Doctor A. B. Clarke of Chicago, who is a son of the Rev. Mr. Clarke of Honolulu, who compiled and translated all the books in use among the natives in the Hawaiian Islands. He is Mrs. Lyman's brother-in-law, and is himself a brother of the Hon. Alva Clarke, who married a native princess and was in King Kalakaua's cabinet, his nephew Frank Austin being the *chargé d'affairs* from Hawaii to the Court of St. James.

Another is Mrs. Nesmith, the widow of an army officer, and the daughter-in-law of one of the presidents of Dartmouth College. She is also a kinswoman of Gen. and Mrs. Greeley and bears a striking resemblance to the handsome wife of the Arctic explorer.

Still another is Mrs. Pride, a sister of Judge McLure of South Carolina and a granddaughter of that Colonel John McLure of North Carolina, who fell after a most brilliant and daring campaign against the brutal Tarleton. Her other grandfather was David Camfield, the fifth in descent from Matthew Camfield, who was a member of the General Court and of the Colonial Legislature in Connecticut from 1654 to 1664. Other well-known men of her kin are the Hon. F. H. Teese of New Jersey and Gen. Halsted for whom the Halsted Observatory at Princeton was named, and who dowered his namesake with $40,000. The family are deeply attached to Princeton, and three of her brothers have graduated from its halls.

Of Mrs. Pride herself can be said that which is true of several rare natures toiling at desks in the Departments,—from every material loss she has won spiritual gain, on every wrecked hope she has risen to nobler heights,

and her life is richer to-day than when in her girlhood the ball lay at her feet and the world was in her grasp.

A noble figure is that of Miss Bessie Mahon, a granddaughter of Judge Bicknell, the chairman of the Committee on Foreign Affairs in the Forty-ninth Congress. She and her mother are both in office for the purpose of giving college educations to the sons of the family, and we can but wonder what future return will seem adequate to these boys, when they realize how these brave women have sacrificed their youth and age for their advancement.

Others of interest are Miss Bouldin, a great-niece of Chief Justice Marshall of Virginia; Mrs. Frobasco of Ohio; Mrs. Foster, a cousin of the Secretary of the Treasury and a woman of rare insight into the politics of the land and the principles of the government; Miss Peyton, a member of the distinguished Virginia family and an examiner of especial acumen; Mrs. Eastwood, who was one of Mrs. Secretary Teller's bridesmaids, and had a future of boundless promise, but her many life-long and influential friends have been able only to mitigate not prevent the sad events of her life; Mrs. Young, sister-in-law of the late Dudley Haskell of Kansas (Forty-eighth Congress) and Miss Trimble of Tennessee—a hard worker and an incessant student. Of this last-named girl one of her desk-mates told me, "When she is not working like a steam engine she is reading Herbert Spencer for *amusement!*"

One of the most unique positions in the office is that filled by Miss McKean, who signs the president's name to all land patents. She is one of seven sisters, who were known in their girlhood as the "seven beautiful McKeans," and her father was for many years the chief clerk of the Treasury. They still retain their grace of carriage and charm of manner, and are the subject of the clever play upon words made by the pastor of St. John's to the pastor of Epiphany. The latter had spoken of one of his congregation as his "rod and staff" in church work, and the former said, "I am more fortunate; *you* have one staff, *I* have seven canes to depend on."

Mrs. Lockhart, Mrs. Cromwell, Mrs. Charles, and Mrs. Burt (the latter a sister of the Kansas vice-regent to Mt. Vernon) are well known in journalism, and also in the gentler realms of poesy; and two at least of them write shrewd and notably clever leaders on the political questions of the day.

There are Old World names too, converted to good revolutionary uses in the last century. Mrs. Braddock represents one, Miss Lauck another—the last indeed has so distinguished an American ancestry that her pictures and relics form an important nucleus for the museum planned and hoped for by the Daughters of the American Revolution; and De Jarnette, Van Natta, and Van Winkle sound familiar.

The standard in the office is high, but even among the hard workers Mrs. Todd, Mrs. Chalker, Mrs. Patton, and Mrs. Murphy are in the van.

Mrs. Anita McKee belongs to the office but as register, the only woman occupying such a position. She lives in Mississippi where her duties are, and receives $3,000, the largest salary paid to a woman.

THE GERMAN GIRL OF THE MIDDLE AGES.

Translated from the "Frauenberuf" for "The Chautauquan."

THE poets of the Middle Ages and the historians who have recorded the events of that period have said much in praise of the wife, but have almost ignored the unmarried woman. A glance at the customs which then prevailed will reveal why the married woman played such a prominent part and the maiden was crowded into the background.

The maiden had no share in what there might be to interest woman. Love which sprang from the free choice of the lovers, and even the society of men were unknown to the unmarried woman of the Middle Ages. The father or guardian disposed of the maiden's hand. She seldom was allowed a choice, and the marriage took place whether with or without love. The suitor did not address the young lady but her guardian, who finally gave her away for a stipulated compensation. This was so even when the lovers were most favored. In the instance of Siegfried and

Kriemhild, the brother gives his sister to Siegfried for a certain sum. Usually the girl's guardian was her father; after his death, her oldest brother or some male relative. It was his duty to manage her property, to protect her from improper suitors, and to settle her in marriage.

Although the maiden of the Middle Ages is seldom mentioned in love songs and minnesingers' poetry, her life is not devoid of interest. The girl's chief joy then as to-day was her doll. Whether it was introduced into Germany by the Romans, or whether, which is very likely, the child's early sentiment of motherly love created it independently, is not determined, but in the tenth century dolls were commonly known, and furnished entertainment for the girl until she became a young woman. Berthold of Regensburg in a Latin sermon criticised girls because they wasted their affection on dolls, wreaths, glass rings, birds, and other idle things.

In the Middle Ages a special pleasure was taken in birds. Many places bear the names Vogelweide (bird meadow), Vogelsang, and Vogelgesang, which shows how the ancients honored the little singers. Woods, birds, meadows, flowers, beauty, and love, complete the catalogue of the Middle Age lyrics. They form an inseparable chain of related objects. Besides the song birds and speaking starling, women delighted in the falcon, which later became the symbol of love. Other animals which served as playthings were chickens, ermines, weasels, owls, and martins. The preference for the cat continues in modern times; however it is rather a necessary domestic animal than a pet. The little girl had also toy animals of wood, clay, or metal.

When she grew up she began playing at dice, draughts, chess, and cards. Brides invited their women friends to a *Karthof*, a game of cards. Ausburgh women were noted for interfering with and forbidding certain games.

The girl's instruction was narrowed arbitrarily; the lower ranks, especially country people, employed their children in house and field work. Usually the daughters of the gentry became governesses. They taught good manners, womanly handicrafts, and sometimes music.

Scientific instruction began in the fifth or sixth year, and was imparted by men. These were always clergymen, with whom, indeed, all the learning was to be found at that time. The lessons were given either at home or in a cloister, whither girls as well as boys were sent. The scope of learning for the girl was limited, including only reading, writing, knowledge of the catechism, church songs, and some Bible history. Sometimes also Latin was introduced. Verses were written in this language by the nuns. The psalter seems to have furnished the chief reading material, and was the customary devotional book for women and girls. Though in this age woman's education was very deficient, a model young woman could read and write. In the representation of Reinmar von Zweter in the Paris manuscript, he is pictured as dictating to a girl who sits at his feet.

In regard to foreign languages the historian Cassiodorus says that Amalaswinth, daughter of Theodoric the Great, in order to attain proficiency in her mother tongue, conversed in the Attic and Roman tongues. This was an exception, to be sure; Amalaswinth was considered a *savant*. The most learned of all German women without doubt was the nun Hroswitha of Gandersheim, who was celebrated as an author of Latin comedy. At the time of Emperor Otto, boys of rank were not infrequently taught by nuns, especially at Quedlinburg and Herford.

In the twelfth century French literature and culture began to exert an influence. Frenchmen were kept at the German court to teach the French language, and both men and women learned it.

Gradually it became the custom to finish the education by travel. Many could not do this. As a compensation they learned of traveled actors, who taught them modern languages, the poetry of the day, and also communicated to them what went on in the world, taking the place of periodicals and newspapers. In addition they gave special instruction in music, for which the governesses frequently were not qualified.

Fast rules regulated the demeanor in society, patterned partly after the Romanian peoples, partly after the good old German customs. The latter more particularly relate to unmarried women. They were emphatically forbidden to wear men's clothing. In walking they must take neither too long nor too short steps. A long cloak must hide the feet. The chest and body must be carried by rule, as is often seen in old pictures. Princes' daughters received also instruction in the vir-

tue of generosity. All girls were taught spinning, weaving, cutting, and embroidering, even if they expected to wear the imperial crown. Under their mother's direction they learned to cook—a cook seldom is mentioned. The spindle was woman's true symbol, as the sword was man's, and until the entrance of the present spindle and distaff it continued to be the most appropriate symbol for the German woman.

Such was the German girl's life up to the time of her marriage. She was entirely a minor until fifteen or sixteen years old. After that she possessed a limited independence. For instance, she could come into an inheritance.

A picture of the ideal of beauty for the German girl of that time must be obtained from authors of the latter part of the Middle Ages. Though the authors of the thirteenth century praise woman they declare themselves unable to picture such beauty. "May brings us all its wonderful beauty," sings Walther von der Vogelweide, "but more beautiful is her form. We pass by all the beautiful flowers to behold lovely woman!"

But not the girl, only the woman is celebrated in those stories of noble ladies and knights which so strangely charm us. However, the young ladies of the degenerate Middle Ages are held up as ideals and the less their contemporaries say of them, the greater duty devolves upon later generations to seek out their attributes.

"THE LAST SUPPER."

THE LEGEND OF THE PAINTING.

BY ELLEN ELISABETH ARMES.

VASARI, in his "Lives of the Painters," tells this legend of the "Last Supper," by Leonardo.

Having failed to fulfil several commissions given him by the duke, and having gained the enmity of the prior of the convent, Santa-Maria-delle-Grazie, the former, at the instigation of the latter, commanded him to paint the "Last Supper" on the walls of the refectory of the convent, giving him one year in which to finish it. The petty annoyances of the prior so exasperated Leonardo, that he painted him as Judas, and then found himself unable to paint the Christ. On the evening of Holy Thursday, the evening before the picture was to be publicly unveiled, it was still unfinished. In his grief and despair, and fearful of some terrible punishment from the duke, the painter knelt at midnight and besought his dead master, Andreas, to come to his aid. On the next day at noon, he crept into the hall with the throng who had been invited, knowing, or believing that the fingers of all Milan would point to him in scorn, and dreading the judgment sure to follow. What was his surprise and joy to behold the picture complete, the lineaments of Christ grand even beyond his conception. Andreas had indeed painted them in "hues of heaven."

From the suffocating heat of the ducal palace,
Went forth, into the refreshing cool of the evening
Where he felt his courage revive for the solemn task,
The painter Da Vinci, and wandered through the gardens
Of Milan, wholly unmindful of time and of place,
Till he found himself before the Dominican convent.

Out on the air was borne the organ peal, and the chant
Of the monks, from the chapel, at evening devotions;
And, as the solemn strains of music fell on his ear,
There stole over his spirit, a sweet peace as from heaven.
Through the convent hall to the refectory passed he
With slow, timid footsteps, and knelt on the threshold:—

"O Thou, who takest away e'en the sins of the world,
How can I paint Thee in Thy hour of greatest glory!
Guide Thou my pencil lest I faint and fail, even though

Within my heart burns deep devotion, holiest love!"

Raising his eyes slowly, he started in amaze—
A scene, glorious as of opened heaven, met his gaze;
His Lord sat before him at the refectory table,
And around Him were the twelve disciples whom He loved.
The head of the blessed Jesus was encircled by
A halo, which the sunset glow in the western sky
Flung softly through the oriel window at His back;
Nor anger nor reproach was in those eyes of love,
But a thrilling, unutterable sadness, as if
The dreadful shadow of the cross was hovering near.
Then fell the painter senseless to the stony pavement,
And when the monks, devotions o'er, came in, they found him,
And brought him back to life.

The plan within his mind was formed to paint the vision
As he beheld it on that Maundy-Thursday eve;
But when his task was hardly yet begun, the prior
Of the convent, with his cunning and malignant hate,
Forbidden to look upon his work, sought to watch him
When he passed; his face might tell of failure or success.
At first Leonardo neither saw nor thought of him,
But when his hateful presence and satanic smile
Came ever in his way as he passed through the convent halls,
His anger burst all bonds, and in contempt and rage he cried,—
"Wait but a little while, and I will seal thy fate,
O prior, as thou canst not even dream nor guess!"

The eleven finished, Judas waited, and for him
The painter caught the prior's cunning smile and look of hate—
This done, his fury and revenge were satisfied,
And he sought to paint the glorious majesty of Christ;
But how could he unite his work of wrath and dream of love!
Day after day, with trembling hand and aching heart he wrought—
Alas! those tender, loving eyes were turned from him,
And in his haggard, grief-worn face the prior read the truth.

Again 'twas Maundy-Thursday eve—
At midnight in his anguish Leonardo knelt,
"My work is ended, I have failed, and now must meet my doom;
O Andreas, save me in my greatest earthly need!"
And there were those who, passing the convent at that hour,
Told of a light of strange, unearthly brilliancy
Shining through the windows of the refectory hall,
And of shadows moving to and fro, as if they wrought.

The morning sun stole in upon the curtained wall;
But o'er the floor no footsteps passed, for such the duke's command,
Until the hour of noon, when doors were open thrown to the great throng—
Then, by the duke's own hand the curtain swung aside, and there,
In all its wondrous beauty, the picture stood revealed,—
The matchless glory of the Christ—painted in "hues of heaven,"
Before whose glorious presence all hearts in homage bent.

A death-like stillness, and then a tumult of applause
Louder and louder swelled that Maundy-Thursday noon,
Till all the waiting city caught the glad, exultant cry.

But look where stands the prior, the Judas close beside,
And mark the stolen glances, and list the whispered words,
Till every eye was turned to him, and hands were raised in scorn;
Then 'mid the smothered curses, the laughter and the jeers,
He passed, alone and silent, out from his convent halls.

Both duke and prior were long since forgot;
But Leonardo lives in fame, and still, though dimmed by time,
The picture on the convent wall breathes of the "Love Divine."

EDITOR'S OUTLOOK.

CHRISTMASTIDE.

THIS is the season which unites all Christendom. Every Christian believer of whatever name or nation joins in celebrating the advent of the Babe of Bethlehem. Even those who doubt or deny His supernatural origin pay unwitting homage to the Savior of mankind by making this a time of superlative rejoicing, of good will, and of good works. The majority of the world still remains unconverted to Christianity but there is not on the globe a race or tribe, no matter how low and barbarous, of which some will not gather to utter their jubilation over the event commemorated.

It matters not whether the 25th day of December is the exact anniversary of the day on which the Redeemer of men was born into the world. That He came 1891 years ago is the essential fact and the historical truth of which Christmas is the recognition. Some day must be set apart in celebration of an event beside which all other occurrences of history are empty of importance, and by common consent the 25th of December has been chosen. It is the only festival of universal observance throughout Christendom, and which distinguishes Christianity wherever it is professed. The lines of division among Christians are then obliterated by the march of the whole consolidated army of the faithful to offer praise to its Captain.

The waves of doubt and denial are described oftentimes as sweeping over all civilized nations, but when Christmas comes we find that really they are confined within narrow bounds. The spirit of Christianity is pervasive. The new tone which it imparted to society and the new impulse which it gave to civilization are discoverable everywhere, and never before were they so marked as now. However it may seem on the surface, the opposition to Christianity as a system of religious truth and ethical principles is actually insignificant. Of positive infidelity there is very little, however frequent may be the disposition to question theological dogmas and statements. The great mass of men in Christendom acknowledge the sublimity of the message delivered by Jesus of Nazareth, although their lives may do violence to His teachings. They know that He and His law are good, and good only. The virulent hostility to Christianity which marked the period of our Revolution has passed away almost entirely, and it has been succeeded by respectful inquiry as to the facts on which religious belief is based. The remains of this old-time infidelity are so few that it has no representation in the newspaper press.

We do not know of a single newspaper existing in this country which is avowedly infidel and hostile to Christianity or which treats Christianity otherwise than respectfully. Such a journal would have no sufficient constituency back of it, and it would speedily die for lack of public support. Several years ago an unsuccessful newspaper in New York ventured the experiment of attacking Christianity as a means of creating a sensation which would accrue to its benefit, but it only hastened its unlamented dissolution. There may be journals unchristian in spirit and principle, but none of them dares to attack Christianity. Even the reprobates themselves would despise it and rise up against it. Even among the vile and the vicious there is a recognition of the sublimity and awful solemnity of the sacrifice of the Lamb of God. Among the worst of men there remains some spark of reverential sentiment which feels the significance of the event commemorated at Christmastide.

The Gospel plan of social elevation is the model upon which modern secularist reformers have been obliged to fall back. They take from it its religious character and deny its supernatural origin, but they can devise no other. Christ's declaration of the brotherhood of man is the motto they must take, though they pervert its application and neutralize its force by rejecting His divine leadership. Socialism, Internationalism, Communism, and even Nihilism are such perversions, greater or less, but they bear witness to the fact that the only true principles of social regeneration are laid down in the Gospel of Jesus Christ, and they indicate that the world is tending to their complete recognition as divine truth. It is groping in the dark and stumbling and tripping, but all the time it is getting nearer to an acknowledgment of

the glorious fact commemorated at this Christmastide. It is learning that Christianity offers the only plan and hope of true and lasting social reform.

This, then, is not a time for misgivings as to the triumph of Christianity. It is a time for rejoicing. Many timid minds tremble at the current scholarly criticism of the Bible, but it is serving to attract attention to the Word of God, whose truth is impregnable to criticism. Agnosticism is not a symptom of the really fatal disease of indifference, but a proof of earnest intellectual interest and concern touching the great questions of religion; and we are told that he who seeketh shall find. It is he who turns away carelessly who never gains the illumination. The most of the contemporary skepticism is really a hopeful sign for Christianity, which may suffer the loss of some theological excrescences by reason of it, but will retain unimpaired its kernel of divine and saving truth, the rock against which the human intellect beats in vain.

There is more real Christianity in the world and a more spiritual perception of Christian truth at this Christmastide, than ever before since the Incarnation it commemorates. Ever since that pivotal event in the history of mankind the race has grown better, enlightenment has spread, the seeds of human liberty have taken deeper root, civilization has assumed a lovelier form, the spirit of brotherhood has extended, and the kingdom of Christ has been enlarged. History records what seemed to be setbacks to the movement, but as we get a larger and a longer view we see that actually they gave it new impetus. The march is steadily onward, never backward, and the progress during the present century has outstripped the advance of all the past.

Hence everybody can join in celebrating this Christmas with a glad heart. It is a time for boundless optimism and for dismissing every pessimistic suggestion. To us, too, and especially, the Christmastide comes this year with abundant prosperity. We are singular in our good fortune among the nations of the world. Here the blessings of Christian civilization and the bountiful fruits of the earth are enjoyed to a greater extent than anywhere else on the globe. Every home therefore should render its tribute of gratitude. If it is oppressed by poverty its burden will be lifted at this Christmastide by the spirit of brotherhood which was born at Bethlehem. If it has happiness and prosperity, it has the abundance out of which Christ bade that a share shall be given to those who lack them.

Thus we celebrate the birth at Bethlehem not by words of praise alone and gorgeous ceremonies, but by practicing the brotherly affection inculcated and exemplified by Christ. Christmas is the day of rejoicing over pleasure conferred. Then altruism, the fruit of Christianity alone, is exhibited in all its beauty, and men learn that the secret of happiness is in producing happiness, in forgetting self in doing good to others. That is a great philosophical no less than religious truth which the Christmastide enforces and illustrates.

FOREIGN VISITORS TO THE COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION.

It is reported of Henry Ward Beecher that some one asked him why he did not travel about and let the people of the country have a chance to hear him. Beecher replied that it was much easier for the United States to go through Plymouth Church than for Plymouth Church to go through the United States. One of the most remarkable things about modern life in this country is the universal desire to visit Europe. Every one who can save the money looks forward to at least one visit abroad and hundreds of thousands of our adopted citizens return home for a few weeks in the steerage every summer. To visit Europe means for us education. It means more, for some one said soon after the war that if the Government were wise it would send all the Southern soldiers abroad for three months. They would return with a real love of their own country.

Manifestly we cannot as a nation visit Europe. Thus Europe should visit us. Not its poverty, its ignorance, its military folly, its dreadful taxation, but its art, culture, manufactures, inventions, its architecture, its best people. These are what we go to see. These are the things that may come to us in sufficient numbers and quantity to be instructive. The European has said in the past, "Pardon me. Why should I? America is barbarous." The European is wiser to-day. He will come if invited.

The Columbian Exposition is our invita-

tion. The projectors may not have thought of this. A large part of our people regard it only as a very good advertisement of ourselves. It is even thought by many that Chicago regards it with the glittering eye of the boarding house keeper. This is perhaps a mistake. The fact remains. The Exposition is practically an invitation to all the world to "run over to dinner and spend the night." And the best thing about this visit will be the social talk over the dinner table, the getting acquainted at our little receptions in the evening when the neighbors drop in and the library lamp invites to friendly talk.

Already there are hints of the acceptance of this idea. The railroads, sensitive to great movements of people, are considering how they shall carry the European visitor from the sea to the lake. Already our learned societies are planning for meetings in Chicago, because of the learned visitor who will be there to see the show. It will be a year of international conferences of charity and science. The best of Europe—the best of the world—is coming to see us. There will be much that is only second best, but we can easily discriminate between the wheat and chaff. Our duty as a people is to prepare to receive our "company." There will be plenty of Marthas to see that the living room is aired and dusted, and the glass and silver polished. What we should do is to look out for "the better part" lest we entertain angels unawares and they come not again to us.

At the time of the Centennial very little was thought of this. We were intent on the advertising aspect of the show. Its educational value was recognized only by the few. Its educational effect was something enormous and beyond all calculation or expectation. The Centennial marked the beginning of household art in this country. Its effects have not yet passed away. We live in more beautiful homes because of it. Our domestic architecture was made free, and, while it may be in the eyes of some critics still crude, it is vigorous with an extraordinary vitality that is working out through its very blunders a love of architecture, a real growth in our appreciation of what is true and fine in our house and home building. The Centennial was an education in other ways, yet in this way it surpassed all possible expectations and proved that such expositions have a real and abiding influence upon all the people. It is not possible to say now the Columbian Exposition will affect our people. Of itself it will be a great object lesson. The visitors and all they bring with them will, if we welcome them aright, do more than entertain. It will be a bringing of Europe to all the people. We may not all go abroad. The Exposition brings the cream of Europe, Japan, China, and India to us. The placing of so much in one of our cities in the center of the population cannot fail to be of immense social and educational value. The reduced rates and increased facilities for travel will enable millions to see the best of the world who could never in all their lives see the world.

One thing should be understood by the visitor before he leaves home. Our people are naturally curious, perhaps inquisitive. Let not the European regard it as impertinence. It is anything but that. It is really the American thirst to know the best, the democratic assumption that in the house of the host all the guests are socially equal. Let the Englishman put aside his insular reserve, the German forget that he is an officer, and the Frenchman forget himself. We are no longer the barbarians of the European ignoramus. We may have a breezy freshness that smiles at rank, we may even feel a trifle unused to dress suits (*they* will never know it), but there is, at least, a real friendliness as man to man, a real and forgivable desire to see and meet the best men and women the world can send. We know that the Japanese is a gentleman, like, if not better than ourselves. We are receiving company for the guest's sake and for our own sake, and for the sake of the children at home to whom the great Exposition will be of the greatest benefit, because upon them will descend the lasting effects of the education it is sure to impart.

THE METHODIST ECUMENICAL COUNCIL.

THE most striking religious event of October, 1891, was the two weeks' session in Washington, D. C., of representatives of all the Methodist denominations in the world. The Council was imposing in view of the vast numbers represented and the importance of the themes discussed. Incidentally it is a suggestive fact that the English language was, as a matter of course, the speech of the Council, a fact which would

suggest its Protestant character if other signs had been wanting. And this incidental fact gives point to the historical fact that all the Methodisms date from an English movement the first steps of which were taken only one hundred and fifty years ago. In short, Methodism is one of the forms of the English conquest of the earth which has been a leading feature of the last three centuries of human history. The English preacher, like the English drumbeat, is heard round the world.

The statistic of the people represented in this Ecumenical was presented in the course of the proceedings and is about as follows:

Eastern section — Ten branches represented by 200 delegates and numbering 1,300,000 members.

Western section — Seventeen branches represented by 300 delegates and numbering 4,958,000 members. These figures indicate a Methodist population of perhaps twenty-five millions. A marked feature of the Council was the modesty of the claims put forward for Methodism and the total absence of brag and bluster about numbers.

There were no theological discussions. No differences of doctrine exist to be reconciled; all branches concur in the doctrines of grace as defined by John Wesley. The discussions related to general issues and movements raised by our modern life; such as the Press, Temperance, Lay Agency, Brotherhoods and Sisterhoods, the Family, the Sunday school, Education, the Relation of the Church to Labor and Capital, Poverty, War, Lotteries, Amusements, Missions and other forms of aggressive Christianity. It is not necessary to prove that the papers and debates were able and creditable to the churches convened. The daily press has furnished abundant evidence that vigor of thought and breadth of vision were happily combined with liberality of sentiment and conservatism of judgment.

Two questions omitted above drew out the Methodist fire; and the recent conference will be longest remembered for its treatment of these questions: Shall women preach? and Shall the different branches of Methodism unite? These discussions surprised all beholders by disclosing the advanced position of the English delegates; they were as radical as the most advanced American radicals of the body, and the sentiment of the conference as expressed by the speakers was very strongly in favor of women occupying the pulpit. The American brethren were astonished and some were pained by the break-neck radicalism of the sturdy John Bulls. Indeed this was found to be true on all questions touching the lines between conservatism and progress. Shall women preach? called out a vigorous debate with lines sharply drawn and close hewing to the line. Of course the question remains unsettled; but it advanced rapidly toward an affirmative settlement during this discussion.

The question of Methodist unity did not provoke so rious a debate; a general desire for some connectional bond—some federation of Methodisms—was manifested, and here too an affirmative settlement was promoted by the discussion. The reasons why there are twenty-seven divisions of Methodism are in small part geographical; geographical separation accounts for only five of the branches. One division is made by race, white and colored. The rest are historical and relate to (1) slavery, which no longer exists, (2) to questions of polity, which are less and less bitterly discussed, and (3) to conflicts of personal feeling and leadership, which have burned out. The branches of Methodism are not divided by any new issues; indeed, new issues tend to bring all Methodists together; for example, they all agree to promote temperance reform. In view of the removal of old causes of difference and the development of new ground for union in thought and work, it is easy to see that some kind of federation is soon to be vigorously advocated with good hope of success. The conference moved this question up to the front line and firmly planted it there.

The differences of opinion developed in the conference were neither denominational nor national. English Wesleyans and English Primitives, Methodists of the North and Methodists of the South agreed and stood together on the very picket lines of progress. Irishmen, Englishmen, Scotchmen, New Englanders, South Carolinians, and Afro-Americans were found holding common opinions. The sharpest differences were *purely personal*. Individuals held antagonistic views, not because they were of different churches or nations, but strictly as individuals. Perhaps this fact is the most instructive one of the conference meetings. It is significant of a leaven of common faith and conviction throughout Christendom.

LITERATURE AS A PROFESSION.

THERE is probably a greater distance between the professionals and the amateurs in the practice of the graphic and plastic arts than exists between the professional and the amateur in literary pursuits; but the difference is quite as marked in one case as in the other when we come to compare products and measure the makers by what they have made.

Taking that evidence of artisanship which is generally, though erroneously, accepted as the exponent of art, we shall easily prove that the skill of the author trained in the academy of the professionals is incomparably better than that of the mere interloper who browses but tentatively along the slopes of Helicon.

Setting genius aside as something extraordinary and unmanageable, we may safely take it as a rule that the writer who conscientiously develops his literary form (if we were figuratively inclined we might say his Cadmean muscles) will show a better product than one who depends upon inspiration and luck as the amateur in a large degree necessarily must.

But who are they whom we may properly call professional authors? In the world of sport the amateurs define professionals as persons who follow any sport for the purpose of gain. In the graphic and plastic arts, when we rob terms of a customary redundancy, we find nearly the same distinction drawn; but in literature the differentiation is not so clear. Journalism, which is a sort of literary *magma*, has been used as a paste to cement all manner of stuffs together, and through it the amateurs and the professionals have intermingled until there is no separating them along any definite line of cleavage.

We all know, nevertheless, the clear-cut work of the trained literature-maker whenever and wherever we see it; we cannot be deceived by the tyro, no matter what his genius. His out-put may be fresh, vigorous, original, and informed with unmistakable individuality of style; but the artisanship of the trained professional is not there.

A great deal has been said and written against magazines of the highest class on account of their preference for the work of professional authors and their exclusion of untried writers from their lists of contributors. Indeed it would look at present as if this cry had affected the judgment of editors; for undoubtedly the current drift of magazine management is toward gathering literature, such as it is, outside of the authorial close. The popularity of the person has begun to be more thought of than the ability to write something that is at once genuine thought and unquestionable literature.

When we come to look at it, all of the greatest English authors were or are professionals in the best sense. Shakspere, Dryden, Pope, Johnson, Scott, Carlyle, Tennyson, Thackeray, Dickens, Hawthorne, Emerson, Longfellow, and all the rest of them, not to mention a long list of eminent women writers, are inscribed in the catalogue of authors who produced literature from the desk of the shop. Goethe, Balzac, Dumas, how many writers of alien languages might we not add, writers who, sometimes even when money was not a necessity to them, made the most of the market. Hugo was a notable example of professional success.

And why should literature-making not be a profession in as distinct a way as is the law, the ministry, medicine, or teaching? Moreover, why should not professional writers do as much better writing than untrained experimenters, as professional lawyers can do better law practice than can amateurs? In fact they can and they do. A child may be born a genius; but it cannot be born with a rich and varied vocabulary at its ready command. Literature comes of a knowledge of language coupled and blended with a knowledge of life. This composite comes earlier to some and easier to some than to others; but it must come before there is any genuine authorship. As well might the cowboy attempt to lecture on the philosophy of Leibnitz as for an untrained person to try to equal the literary style of Macaulay or the fine expression of romance which is the glory of Scott and the grandeur of Hugo.

But literary professionalism has produced its evils; most conspicuous among them the evil of realism as the analytical novelists practice it. We believe in realism. Scott and Hugo and Dickens were realists; that is they made their creations credible and lifelike. The so-called realists of to-day, however, are impressed with the notion that nothing is real but the commonplace and the insignificant. The systematic training of mediocre talent to the business of authorship—of novel-writing say—certainly tends to this pseudo-realism; for these machine-made story-writers not having the genius for original work must neces-

sarily turn to the commonplace life around them for all their materials. They can originate nothing, they have no conception of heroic life or of ideal aspirations; they must rely upon observation and diction; the result is a smooth, sleek, cunningly jointed product, admirable in a way; but possessing no trace of that fluid of immortality which is the preservative of all literatures. This is the curse of professionalism not only in literature, but in every other calling as well. The mills of the literary schools turn out good artisans, who can do routine work with mechanical exactness, and these artisans file the cherry seeds of commonplace into specimens of curious and pretty literary bric-à-brac. Few of them, however, can rise above conscious cunning and show themselves enlightened athletes with the full freedom of unspoiled imagination.

This is why the world turns to greet with such vehemence a writer like Rudyard Kipling. We all know very well that his stories are mere crude tricks, that he does not make literature, that there will be an end of him in a year or two unless he betters himself; still we are so hungry for romance that we grab at the rawest cutlet of it.

Literature is a noble profession; but, like all the others, it is infested with vulgar and pretentious people, who with their trainers, rubbers, and bottle-holders make a prize-ring of Parnassus.

EDITOR'S NOTE-BOOK.

THE frontispiece in this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN is a portrait of Edward Everett Hale, who was born in Boston on the 3rd of April, 1822. His father was Nathan Hale, and his mother Sarah Preston Everett, both of Boston. He was fitted for Harvard College at the Boston Latin School and graduated at college in 1839. For six years he was engaged in various studies and pursuits, generally in the assistance of his father, who was a prominent editor and civil engineer. In 1846 Dr. Hale became the minister of the Church of the Unity (Unitarian) of Worcester, Mass., and remained there for ten years. In 1856 he removed to Boston as the minister of the South Congregational Church, and has been the minister of that church ever since. He is the author of a large number of books, many of which have had an extensive sale. He has been the editor successively of the *Christian Examiner*, *Old and New*, and now of the magazine called *Lend a Hand*, which is an organ of many of the charitable societies of the country. He is a counselor of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle, and lectures before local circles and frequently at Chautauqua Assemblies during the summer.

GENERAL BOULANGER'S suicide at the grave of his mistress in the cemetery near Brussels was a dramatic ending of a sensational and adventurous career. He plotted against the peace of his country, died an exile, and was buried among strangers. France will have less to fear from the royalists now that Boulanger is in his grave. Balmaceda's recent death by his own hand brought quiet to Chili, and Parnell's death from friction and overwork promises to simplify the Irish cause in Parliament, and perhaps it will give Home Rule a new lease of life. Thus three notable men have lately passed away, each under a cloud caused by the trouble of his own making. The political arena in Chili, France, and England will not be so turbulent without them as it was with them. When we think of eminent statesmen—such as Signor Crispi in Italy, Bismarck in Germany, and Gladstone in England—whose loyal service to a good cause endear them to their fellow citizens, we have a significant lesson in current personal political history across the sea.

THE successor to Madam Blavatsky has been found in Mrs. Annie Besant, the divorced wife of a brother of Walter Besant, the novelist. Her husband was a clergyman in the Church of England and had a good living. They had two children, a boy and a girl. Mrs. Besant was an omniverous reader. Her faith in the doctrines of the Christian Church became unsettled. She took counsel of Dr. Pusey and Dean Stanley, only to swing farther away from the religion of her mother and of her former husband. She became the chief lieutenant of Bradlaugh, writing and lecturing to promote his views of atheism, and at last when Madam Bla-

vatsky died, some of her followers saw in Mrs. Besant a gifted talker, an easy writer, and an enthusiastic advocate of theosophy, and adopted her as the "Queen" of their sect. Now by every device known to sagacious and enterprising men, Mrs. Besant is being boomed as the "Queen" of theosophy in the newspapers and wherever their trumpets may be sounded.

ON October 14, in Trinity Church, Boston, Dr. Phillips Brooks was consecrated as Bishop of Massachusetts. This act furnishes one more evidence—and a strong one, too—of the broadening influences at work in the Protestant Episcopal Church. Bishop Brooks is widely known for his liberality and spirit of fellowship with all denominations. As a pastor he felt that his pulpit was not too narrow to forbid his giving welcome in it to any other earnest Christian worker. In his larger field of labor his power will be more widely felt and will strengthen the present tendency of the Church to move farther away from the chilling influence of exclusive formalism. Episcopalians, in common with other denominations, are learning that they need not lose their Church individuality, because on venturing out into the balmy open sea of Christian communion, they are obliged to lay aside some of their denominational peculiarities.

THE death of James Parton occurred October 17 at his home in Newburyport, Mass. Though thoroughly an American, Mr. Parton was born at Canterbury, England, February 9, 1822, coming to this country five years later with his widowed mother. He obtained a classical education at White Plains, N. Y., and after spending some time in Europe returned to this country and taught in Philadelphia and afterwards in New York City. In 1856 occurred his marriage with Mrs. Eldredge, "Fanny Fern." Three years after her death (1872), while yachting with his friend, Gen. B. F. Butler, Mr. Parton became impressed with the beauty of Newburyport and soon moved thither. In February, 1876, he married Miss Ellen Eldredge, his stepdaughter. Learning soon after the wedding that such a marriage was illegal in Massachusetts, he petitioned the legislature to legalize it; but without avail. In spite of Mr. Parton's peculiar views on religion, he was highly respected by the people and honored with many public offices. As a writer Mr. Parton was more successful in his lighter sketches written in earlier life, his most popular large work being his "Life of Horace Greeley." For many years he contributed largely to the various periodicals, and was a popular writer for THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

THE reports read in the annual meeting of the American Board of Foreign Missions held in Pittsfield, Mass., show that there are now in the entire field 1,287 missions and 2,648 native helpers; there is a church membership of 38,226; and in the various educational institutions there are 46,403 students. For the accomplishment of this great work the Board has received only $6 out of every $100 raised for church purposes. Supported on this small proportion there are to-day representatives of the Congregational Church of America in every portion of the globe. The increasing work demands greater funds and stirring appeals were made for larger giving.

THE Legislature of Colorado at its last session passed two measures calculated to secure the freedom of the ballot. The first prohibits bribery, corruption, intimidation, and all other forms of improper influence in election and requires sworn publication after election by both candidates and campaign committees of expenditures made. The second is an adaptation of the Australian ballot system providing for an official blanket ballot. The number of states, including Colorado, having new ballot laws is now thirty, and will be increased to thirty-two when the law called for by the recent constitutional enactments in Texas and Kentucky shall have been enacted.

IT appears improbable that any steps will be taken at present toward the construction of railway lines connecting the Americas. Such an enterprise would have to compete with the great waterways on either side of the continent from Buenos Ayres to New York and from Valparaiso to San Francisco. The extension of the steamship business offers a much safer field for the investment of capital and it is not at all certain that the railway investment would be profitable, for the existing means of transit are far less costly and quite as reliable as any rail route could be for so great a distance. It would seem that if a Pan-American Railway is ever constructed it will be through the agency of local influences, when there is a real need for connecting railway lines between the states of Central and South America, and this will

happen only when the population has increased sufficiently to extend in a considerable degree the present amount of traffic.

THE New York *Sun* does a very proper thing in calling attention to the fact that no building has been provided for by the World's Fair Commissioners for exhibiting the different systems of public education which prevail in the United States. The following reasons are urged for the provision of a special building: That although a department in the Government Building will be devoted to the Bureau of Education, this will not be adequate to do justice to the methods in vogue in the various states. Public education is not and probably never will be in the hands of the Federal Government. In the various parts of the country wide diversity is shown,—some states maintaining kindergartens, some industrial schools, some colleges, etc. Already the United States public school systems have awakened almost universal interest, and a just and comprehensive exhibit should be made; the most important schools and colleges, including those for the deaf and dumb and the blind, should send compendiums and study lists that their methods may be viewed intelligently and connectedly by sojourners at the Fair. Otherwise, furnished with only fragmentary data, people will go away with a distorted idea of the subject.

IN his address before the National Prison Congress in Pittsburgh, Pa., October 10, ex-President Rutherford B. Hayes made some plain observations, which, unattended by other causes, would largely explain the "great increase of crime" in the United States. Young offenders and suspected persons are incarcerated with hardened criminals and there become educated in all manner of wickedness. Professional law-breakers are imprisoned for short terms, then turned adrift no better than before, to beguile others to destruction. Prisoners are released helpless and empty-handed, doomed by popular prejudice to vagrancy, and compelled to prey upon society for sustenance. The prison officials in many instances act only as political appointees, and are subject to removal at any time for purely political reasons, without regard to merit. These few facts suggest the startling conclusion that the great volume of iniquity is due to the injury done by a false public opinion and the poor management of the criminal classes.

AN assault upon United States sailors of the *Baltimore* was made by Chilian sailors at Valparaiso, October 16. Petty Officer Charles Riggan was dragged from the street car, shot and killed by an armed mob, one hundred and fifty strong. Five other American seamen were dangerously wounded and many seriously injured. A number of the wounds are pronounced by the surgeons of the *Baltimore* to have been caused by bayonet thrusts, which fact would implicate the police in the affray. Thirty-five sailors were arrested and held in custody by Chilian authorities. Secretary of the Navy, B. F. Tracy, quoting the latest dispatch received from Capt. Schley, commander of the *Baltimore*, says the Union sailors were sober, orderly, and without weapons at the time of the assault. The attack is in no wise parallel with the Italian affair of March 14, at New Orleans. Americans must be protected in foreign lands, and immediate steps should be taken for redress.

To the old story of historical repetition is added another chapter. There has developed along with the persecution of the Jews in Russia, the need of more revenue for the administration of the government and the bolstering up of the national finances. From none but the capricious French investors does it seem probable the loan for $100,000,000 will be obtained and even they will hesitate before loaning so large an amount on the bonds of a nation practically bankrupt, and with the chances for surplus revenue rendered desperate by the almost utter ruin of its harvest. Still further difficulty will be encountered in the opposition of the whole Jewish banking fraternity of Europe, who have made the loan an impossibility in England and Germany and who will make it hazardous for the French investors to float on the financial market. The conditions were much the same when the Rothschilds placed the economic screws on Russia and refused to loan any more money to the government until the persecution of the Jews ceased. The policy of the government suddenly changed and the Jews were not further molested. There are many who hope for the operation of causes so radical and effective that the Russian government will be again forced into abandoning the persecution.

THE present condition of the publishing business in France is not encouraging to

those engaged in the production of literary material in that Republic. It is said that there are at present three million volumes of novels on the hands of Paris publishers of which no disposition can be made. Notwithstanding the fact that there are but a dozen authors who command the French market, the publishers continue to issue large and expensive editions. This condition of affairs is now largely confined to the publication of novels but its effect is noticeable in the other branches of the book trade. The prudence and ability of authors and publishers will be exercised in determining the remedy for what may be overproduction in a fluctuating market.

THE unveiling of the statue of the Southern "journalist, orator, and patriot," Henry W. Grady, took place at noon, October 21, 1891, in Atlanta, Ga. The streets were thronged with people. In the procession were the police, Mexican band, volunteers and cadets, Confederate veterans, the O. M. Mitchell Post, G. A. R., Gov. Northern and his staff, Mayor and General Council, and carriages with guests. When the multitude gathered about the platform Miss Gussie Grady unveiled the monument. Senator Voorhees and General Slocum were among the guests. Special attention centered in Governor Hill from New York State who delivered the oration. He was introduced by Clark Howell, editor of the *Constitution* and speaker of the House of Representatives of Georgia. In his brief remarks Mr. Howell said, "It best befits the occasion that to-day's memorial oration should be spoken by lips which are akin to, yet not of the South. . . . . The North sends you to-day the Governor of the great State of New York to speak of Grady's work." Governor Hill was welcomed by the multitude with great enthusiasm, and his oration was a just tribute to the memory of a noble man.

THE recent strike at the wharves in London and Liverpool, if not very important in itself, is important as indicating the method of the new administration in asserting public authority. In the great strike last year the dockers won because of the non-interference of the Police Department in their practice of intimidation. The English police never exhibited their weakness in a greater degree than when they knowingly permitted acts of the grossest violence by the strikers against the men who were willing to work. In the recent strike the action of the police was speedy and effective, the result being that a satisfactory adjustment was brought about by means of arbitration. It is frequently the case that a proper enforcement of public law, as in this instance, is necessary only to abridge the most serious difficulties and give to society that stability which it needs in the conduct of business.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

FOR DECEMBER.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

First week (ending December 8).

"The Leading Facts of American History." Paragraphs 161–180.

"Social Institutions of the United States." Chapter X.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Battles of Trenton and Princeton."

"The History of Political Parties in America."

Sunday Reading for December 6.

Second week (ending December 16).

"The Leading Facts of American History." Paragraphs 181–198.

"Social Institutions of the United States." Chapter XI.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Domestic and Social Life of the Colonists."

"Physical Life."

Sunday Reading for December 13.

Third week (ending December 23).

"The Leading Facts of American History." Paragraphs 199–222.

"Social Institutions of the United States." Chapters XII. and XIII.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"States Made from Colonies."

"National Agencies for Scientific Research."

Sunday Reading for December 20.

Fourth week (ending December 31).

"The Leading Facts of American History." Paragraphs 223–258.

"Social Institutions of the United States." Chapters XIV. and XV

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Colonial Shire."

"The Parasitic Enemies of Cultivated Plants."

Sunday Reading for December 27.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FIRST WEEK.

WASHINGTON DAY.—DECEMBER 5.

The eagerness of men to believe that pure moral power carries empire with it, is the reason why men study with personal interest the life and character of Washington.—*E. E. Hale.*

A CORRESPONDENCE PARTY OR A FIND OF OLD MSS.

The circle is to suppose that an old chest of MSS. has been discovered from which letters descriptive of the different periods of Washington's history have been selected so as to make a complete account. Each letter must read as if written by a real character to a real character, and must be made as natural as possible and in keeping with the times. For instance, for the period covering Washington's boyhood, including the first ten years of his life, there might be read a letter purporting to have been written by his father to Lord Fairfax in England. This would naturally allow of a full description of Virginia life, of his own family life, and a father's pride in a promising son could be made to excuse what might otherwise seem undue eulogy. A correspondence covering this part of his career can be held of course between any other two characters which may be preferred. A good point can be made by selecting for the assumed correspondents famous persons, and having the letters weave in matters of history which could reveal the writers, and then letting the circle guess their names. In other cases the initials of writer and recipient could be given from which to find out full names. The letters can be so written as to cover each decade of Washington's life or arranged by topics, such as from boyhood to the French and Indian war; the French and Indian war; the time of the Revolution could be divided in two or three periods; from the end of the Revolution to the presidency; Washington's presidency; his closing years.

Reading—"Washington in English Fiction."*

SECOND WEEK.

1. Reading—"The Battle of Trenton."*
2. Paper—Why was Saratoga chosen from all the battles of the Revolution as the one to be classed among the decisive battles of the world?
3. Character Study—Contrasting lives, Lafayette and Benedict Arnold.
4. Questions on Physiology and Botany in *The Question Table.*
5. Debate—Resolved: That the profusion of literature in modern times is detrimental to the production of deep thinkers. (See "Rambling."*)

THIRD WEEK.

1. Questions on American Facts and Fancies and on World of To-Day in *The Question Table.*
2. Reading—"The Last Battle of the Revolution."*
3. Book Review—"The Virginians," by Thackeray (with a special view to the history of the Revolution).
4. Character Study — Contrasting Lives—Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr.
5. Resolved: That oratory is of no real benefit to a public speaker.

FOURTH WEEK.

1. Paper—Naval Warfare in the War of 1812.
2. Reading—"The Good Old Times."*
3. Character Sketch—Henry Clay.
4. A Lesson in Manners—The story of American conceit as portrayed by Dickens in "Martin Chuzzlewit." (This exercise may be given orally with selections read from the book or it may be presented in the form of a paper as a study of the book.)
5. *Questions and Answers* on "Social Institutions of the United States."

Remember, the numbers on the *Suggestive Programs* are only to supplement THE LESSON as marked out in *The Outline;* it is to be the *regular feature* of every circle meeting, though it is not repeated in the weekly programs.

For a Christmas program if one is needed, an appropriate exercise would be the telling of historical stories of Christmases spent in war times. The room should be decorated with flags and banners; it could be made to represent headquarters in camp, and the gentlemen might appear in soldiers' uniform. The whole affair might be made quite a study in army etiquette. If it is decided to carry it so far, most of the circles can find some army officer from whom to get any needed instructions. There should be plenty of national music, and a regular Christmas treat in the way of a banquet. An interesting entertainment would be the reading of some Christmas story of war or of camp life. A very good one is told about Valley Forge by Edward E. Hale in his "Christmas in a Palace." (See notice in *Talk About Books.*)

*See *The Library Table*, page 376.

*See *The Library Table*, page 376.

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON REQUIRED READINGS FOR DECEMBER.

"THE LEADING FACTS OF AMERICAN HISTORY."

P. 161. "Compelled to eat their moccasins." The following description of the sufferings endured on this expedition is taken from Lossing's "Pictorial Field-Book of the Revolution": "Judge Henry who at the close of the last century was president of the second judicial district in Pennsylvania, was one of the soldiers in this expedition, and has left behind him a lucid and exceedingly interesting narrative of the hardships and sufferings of that band of heroes. In reference to the destitute condition of the troops before food was sent back from Sertigan, he says, 'Coming to a low, sandy beach of the Chaudière, some of our companies were observed to dart from the file, and with their nails tear out of the sand roots which they esteemed eatable, and eat them raw, even without washing. . . . They washed their moose-skin moccasins in the river [and brought them] to the kettle and boiled [them] a considerable time under the vague but consolatory hope that a mucilage would take place. The poor fellows chewed the leather, but it was leather still."——A letter from General Dearborn concerning this time says, "My dog was very large and a great favorite. I gave him up to several men of Captain Goodrich's company. They killed and divided him among those who were suffering most severely from hunger. They ate every part of him."

P. 162. "Tories." Roger North says that this term is applied to the most despicable savages among the wild Irish; and that it was given to the followers of the Duke of York in 1679, because he favored Irishmen. It and the word Whig (see foot note on page 25 of the October number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN) were "nicknames originally of bitterest scorn and party hate, given by two political bodies in England to one another, which in course of years lost what was offensive in them until they came to be accepted and employed by the very parties themselves."

P. 173. "Schuyler" [ski'ler].

P. 174. "Brandywine." This name is "the older form of the word now shortened to brandy. In German it is *branntwein*, burnt wine. Brand is a spirit distilled from wine, therefore, burnt wine.——Tradition ascribes the name of the creek to the loss of a Dutch vessel laden with brandy (*branntwein*). "The wreck occurred in 1665, in the river just above its junction with the Christiana, and the shattered remains lay long in the waters, serving as a memento to keep alive in the heart of the community ceaseless regret for the loss of such good liquor, until the mourning Dutch sought to soothe their sorrow by naming the stream *In Memoriam*, hoping, like Dogberry, to draw comfort from their losses."—*Bunce.*

P. 177. "General Charles Lee." While Lee was held as an English prisoner, and there was probability of his execution, Washington wrote to Howe that he was holding five Hessian field-officers as hostages for Lee's safety. As a prisoner of war he was exchanged in 1778 and was so restored to American service.

P. 194. "Mint." The word is derived from the Latin *moneta*, mint, or money. "*Moneta* was the surname of the goddess Juno, in whose temple at Rome money was coined. This surname was derived from the verb *monere*, to warn."

"War between France and England." Immediately after hearing of the execution of Louis XVI., England, Germany, Holland, and Spain united to put down the Revolution in France. The movement there was such a strike at monarchical government as these other monarchies feared to let go unmolested lest its reactionary force if successful should undermine other monarchies. The French Convention had offered "the aid of French arms to all people desirous of liberty, and French ministers intrigued with the disaffected party in England and Ireland."

P. 204. "The purchase of Louisiana." On the conclusion of the sale, which dealt a heavy blow to England by keeping her out of the possession of this vast tract which in all probability would have fallen to her, Napoleon said, "This accession of territory strengthens forever the power of the United States. I have given England a maritime rival which will sooner or later humble her pride."

P. 206. "Embargo." A Spanish word compounded of *em*, Latin *im* or *in*, and *barra*, a bar, anything which arrests or hinders; hence, a bar in the way, a stoppage of ships.

P. 214. "Hauling down the English colors." A rudely constructed war song entitled "Ye Parliament of England," enumerates nearly all the twelve battles won, in the following selected stanzas:

You thought our frigates were but few
And Yankees could not fight
Until brave Hull your *Guerrière* took
And banished her from your sight.
The *Wasp* then took your *Frolic*
We'll nothing say to that,
The *Poictiers* being of the line
Of course she took her back.
The next, your *Macedonian*,
No finer ship could swim,
Decatur took her gilt-work off
And then he sent her in.
The *Java* by a Yankee ship
Was sunk, you all must know;
The *Peacock* fine in all her plume,
By Lawrence down did go.

Then next you sent your *Boxer*,
To box us all about,
But we had an *Enterprising* brig
That beat your *Boxer* out.

. . . . . .

Then next upon Lake Erie
Where Perry had some fun,
You own he beat your naval force
And caused them for to run.

. . . . . .

There's Rogers in the *President*,
Will burn, sink, and destroy;
Then *Congress*, on the Brazil coast,
Your commerce will annoy,
The *Essex* in the South Seas
Will put out all your lights,
The flag she waves at her masthead—
"Free Trade and Sailors' Rights."

P. 226. "The National Road." For full history and description of this highway see article in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for September of the present year.

"SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS OF THE UNITED STATES."

P. 163. "*A priori*." A Latin expression, translated, from the cause to the effect.

The "City of the Violet" was Athens. Ion, the Greek word for violet, was the name of a mythical king of Athens, whose four sons gave names to the four Athenian classes. Athens was King Ion's city, the city of the violet. The "City of the Lily" was Florence. The badge of Florence was made in the form of the fleur-de-lis (flower of the lily). This badge was called the Florentine lily, or the giglio [jē'lyō].

P. 164. "Pericles" [per-i-klēz']. An Athenian statesman who lived in the fifth century B. C. He succeeded in making Athens the center of political power and the seat of art and refinement. Architectural works of the highest order were built, among them the Parthenon; a high form of democratic government was established; literature, painting, and sculpture rose to the highest perfection.

P. 169. "Coterie" [kō-te-ree]. French for set or circle of persons who meet familiarly for literary or social or other purposes.

P. 170. "Met'a-phors." Short similitudes. "The word is of Greek pedigree, and is composed of two words which embody the idea of carrying something over. Thus . . . when we speak of a man as "crusty," we do not mean that there is actually a crust over him, but simply that he is as difficult of approach and as disagreeable as he would be if he were covered with such a hard substance. When we say that a man is a 'veritable oyster,' no one supposes that we mean what we say, but thinks of the man mentioned as shut up to himself, and as unsocial as an oyster is supposed to be."—*Arthur Gilman, M.A.*

P. 174. "Dante [dăn'te]. "Giotto" [jot'to]. "Petrarch" [pe'trark]. "Boccaccio" [bok-kat'cho]. "Ghiberti" [ge-bair'te. The *g* is hard]. "Machiavelli," [mak-e-ä-vel'li]. "Michael Angelo" [mi'kel an'ja-lo. When written, as it frequently is, as one word, it is pronounced me-kel-an'ja-lo].

P. 181. "Ampère," André Marie. (1775–1836.) A French physicist who devoted much attention to electro-magnetism. The unit employed in measuring the strength of an electric current is named after him the ampere [am-pair'].——"Mérimée" [mā-rē-mā], Prosper. (1803–1870.) A French author and archæologist. In 1834 he was made inspector of ancient historical monuments of France, whence he obtained the material for several valuable works on archæology.

P. 189. "Re-nais-sance." [Give the first *e* the sound it has in *her*. For the pronunciation of the last syllable see foot note on the word Maupassant on page 49 of October number of the present volume of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, and to the sound indicated there add the *ce* or *s* sound.] The period, beginning with the fourteenth and ending with the first half of the sixteenth century, which witnessed the revival of classic literature and art in Europe. "The Greeks driven from Constantinople by Mahomet II., took refuge in Italy and were the chief cause of this renaissance."

P. 192. "Censor." In ancient Rome it was a custom to appoint two officers whose duty it was to keep a register of the citizens and of the amount and value of property for the purposes of taxing and classifying the people, and to regulate the manners and morals of the people by the imposition of fines for offenses. Hence, one

who censures or reproves; one who assumes the office of a critic.

P. 196. "The *Alabama* claims." For account of the settlement of these, see "The Leading Facts of American History," page 339.

P. 198. "Metaphysics." Greek *meta*, beyond, after, and *phusikos*, pertaining to nature. The Greek expression for the word was *meta ta phusika*, after those things which relate to external nature, after physics. In the order of studies laid down by Aristotle or his followers, the science of nature was placed first and after that the science of mind. The shortest and most comprehensive definition for the word is mental philosophy. Sir William Hamilton defines it as "the science or complement of sciences exclusively occupied with mind."

P. 199. "America's one distinguished architect" was Henry Hobson Richardson (1838-1886). He graduated at Harvard in 1859 and then studied some time in Paris. Among the most remarkable works which he designed and built are Trinity Church, Boston, the State Capitol at Albany, the Crane Memorial Library in Quincy, Mass., Sever Hall and Austin Hall in Cambridge, Mass.; and he left unfinished at the time of his death, the Board of Trade Building in Cincinnati, Ohio, and the Court House in Pittsburgh, Pa.

P. 201. "Cos-mo-pol'i-tan-ism." The condition or character of a cos-mop'o-lite, who is a person at home in any part of the world, who has no fixed residence. Greek *kosmos*, the world, *polites*, a citizen. "Cosmopolite has often now a shallow or even a mischievous use; and he who calls himself a cosmopolite may mean no more than that he is not a patriot, that his native country does not possess his love. Yet, as all must admit, he could have been no common man who, before the preaching of the Gospel, launched this word upon the world, and claimed this name for himself. Nor was he a common man; for Diogenes the Cynic, whose sayings are among the most notable in antiquity, was its author. Being demanded of what city he was, Diogenes answered that he was a 'cosmopolite'; in this word widening the range of men's thoughts, bringing in not merely a word new to Greek ears, but a thought which however commonplace and familiar to us now, must have been most novel and startling to those whom he addressed."

P. 203. "The Dual Monarchy." Austria-Hungary.

P. 206. "Amorphous." Greek, *a*, lacking, and *morphe*, shape, form. Formless, of no particular kind or character. It is interesting to trace the same original in the word morphine, which is derived from Morpheus, the Greek god of dreams. The god received his name because of the variety of shapes he assumed, and for the shapes he called up before dreamers. His name was given to the narcotic principle of opium because of the visions it excites in the minds of those addicted to its use.

P. 214. "Teu-ton'ic." Pertaining to the Teutons or ancient Germans whence sprang the nations of northern and Western Europe.

"Turgid" [tur'jid]. Latin *turgere*, to swell. Pompous, bombastic, vainly ostentatious.

"Rhō'di-an." Characterized by strong, broad language, and striking, showy, figures; as Rhodian pottery is distinguished for bold decorations, brilliant colors, and its plenteous use of enamel.—The "Attic" dialect is the most cultivated form of the Greek language; it is a pure, chaste, and elegant style.

"Tropes" [one syllable]. Words used in a different sense from that which properly belongs to them. "A figure of rhetoric is an intentional deviation from the ordinary application of words. Several of this kind of figures are commonly called tropes [from a Greek word meaning turns], because certain words are turned from their original signification to another." Some authors use trope as a synonym for figure; others make figures the genus of which trope is a species; and others make them different things, defining trope as a change of sense, and figure a change of ornament. Figure is the more comprehensive term. Of the sixteen principal figures of rhetoric, four are commonly called tropes; metaphor, metonymy, synecdoche, and irony.

P. 215. "Fo-ren'sic." See note on page 102 of the October number of this magazine.

P. 218. "Epideictic" [ep-i-dīk'tik]. From a Greek adjective meaning fit for displaying or showing off. Demonstrative, applied to oratory of a purely rhetorical character. Such oratory has for its object simply to afford pleasure or satisfaction.

P. 226. "*Gêne*." French for constraint, uncomfortableness, embarrassment.

P. 229. "*Roideur*." French for stiffness, rigidity.

"Plutocracy." A Greek derivation from two words meaning wealth and to rule. That form of government in which the supreme power is lodged in the hands of the wealthy classes.—An "aristocracy" is a government in which the chief persons or highest classes form the governing body, the Greek word *aristos* meaning best.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

*ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.**

SOCIAL INSTITUTIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

1. Q. Name two current theories regarding the influence of democratic institutions on intellectual activity. A. That they stimulate a people to greater exertions; that they reduce the standard to the level of vulgar minds.

2. Q. An examination of both theories proves what to be true concerning them? A. That they are baseless.

3. Q. How is this deduction verified in the case of the United States? A. American democracy has produced no age of Pericles, neither has it dwarfed literature into mediocrity.

4. Q. What common mistake is made regarding the forms of government? A. That of exaggerating their influence.

5. Q. Name two characteristics of the American people which seem inconsistent with each other. A. Admiration for intellectual gifts, and undervaluation of special knowledge.

6. Q. What is admitted regarding a distinctive note of democratic thought and art in the United States? A. That there is no such note.

7. Q. If not to politics, to what then are due the perceptible differences in sentiment and humor between American and English books? A. To a variety of causes which have molded the American mind for two centuries.

8. Q. Why can there not be an American literature just as there is a French or German literature? A. Because for purposes of thought and art America and England are both parts of one country, and cannot be separated.

9. Q. What in all history is true concerning the appearance of rare geniuses? A. That no one has been able to throw any light upon the causes calling them forth.

10. Q. Mention a remarkable instance proving the truth of this assertion. A. Broad France found its master in the time of the Revolution in a native of a wild Italian island.

11. Q. In this line what then is the only fair question to ask concerning the United States? A. Whether it has failed to produce its fair share of talent of the second rank.

12. Q. What does a comparison of the United States with England, Germany, or France during the last century show in this particular? A. That fewer men of this order have adorned its roll of fame than the roll of these other countries.

13. Q. How do Americans themselves account for this failure? A. By saying that their chief occupation is the subjugation of their continent.

14. Q. What type of mind have American conditions evolved? A. One that is quick, vigorous, practical, versatile.

15. Q. In what is this type of mind lacking? A. The slow patience needed to bring details to an exquisite perfection.

16. Q. In what direction does the stimulative American atmosphere drive eager youth? A. Away from the groves of the Muses into the market place.

17. Q. How did the lack of international copyright tell against American literature? A. The native writer was discouraged by being undersold by reprints of foreign books.

18. Q. What are the most recent developments in literature of American thought and research? A. Excellent work done in fiction and in classical scholarship.

19. Q. For what disagreeable trait did all visitors of a few years ago satirize Americans? A. Conceit.

20. Q. What does a study of the special relations of the United States to European countries reveal? A. That as respects most kinds of intellectual work the former is rather in the position of consumer, the latter of the producer.

21. Q. Does it follow from this that the United States tends to follow the initiative of Europe? A. No, in many points she is independent.

22. Q. What can hardly be doubted regarding American literature when the people shall give themselves some repose from their present labors? A. That there will arise such a literature as will tell upon Europe with new force.

23. Q. In what sense is the word capital used when it is said the United States has none? A. As the name of a city which in all particulars is the head and center of the country.

24. Q. According to this definition what cities are good representatives as capitals? A. Paris and London.

25. Q. In what way might such a centralization of intellectual life prove harmful to general literature? A. By diminishing the chances of variability.

26. R. What result naturally follows the ab-

* The questions and answers on "The Leading Facts of American History" are omitted because of the exhaustive and pertinent list of Questions for Examination published in the back of the book.

sence of such a capital? A. Public opinion crystallizes less rapidly and in less well-defined forms than in countries having such a capital.

27. Q. To what did Americans resort to supply in a measure this lack of a capital city? A. Conventions in which opinions could be exchanged and a policy determined upon.

28. Q. What conspicuous gains compensate the Americans for the absence of a center of force? A. No one city can dominate the government, and there can be no grouping in one spot of what is called society.

29. Q. In what accomplishment is it conceded that Americans excel? A. Oratory.

30. Q. Why is an American speaker able to make himself more completely one with his audience than an average English speaker can? A. Because of the national habit of deference to others and a desire to be in accord with their sentiments.

31. Q. What gift more common in America than elsewhere helps keep speaker and audience in touch with one another? A. Humor.

32. Q. What is the commonest defect in American oratory? A. An inflated style.

33. Q. What kinds of speaking are most developed in America? A. The oration of the occasion, after dinner speeches, and lectures.

34. Q. What common fault do American audiences find with European lecturers? A. That they assume a lower level of intelligence among them than exists.

35. Q. Of what does the European lecturer complain most frequently? A. Of the coldness of the American audience.

36. Q. In England what sets the standard for public speaking? A. Parliamentary debate.

37. Q. In America what is the standard? A. Stump oratory.

38. Q. Who stand as representatives of brilliant popular oratory and majestic parliamentary oratory in America? A. Patrick Henry and Daniel Webster.

39. Q. Who was called one of the first orators of the present century? A. Wendell Phillips.

40. Q. What leading element renders life in America preferable to that in Europe? A. The general prosperity of the masses.

41. Q. Name the second charm of American life. A. Its social equality.

42. Q. The absence of what other rancor brightens American life? A. There are no quarrels between different churches and sects.

43. Q. What American traits of character agreeably impress foreign visitors? A. Good nature, sociability, a spirit of helpfulness.

44. Q. To what causes does the author ascribe this development of the original English type? A. The humorous turn of American character and the perpetuation of a habit of helpfulness formed in colonial days.

45. Q. In the foregoing generalizations with whom have the Americans been chiefly compared? A. The English people.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

AMERICAN FACTS AND FANCIES.

In what books are the following characters, and who are their authors?

1. Harvey Birch.
2. Paul Fleming.
3. Jo March.
4. Number Seven.
5. Hepzibah Pyncheon.
6. Felix Guthrie.
7. Mr. Bradford.
8. Jean Waldo.
9. Philothea.
10. Miss Dunbar.
11. Charley Millard.
12. Mr. Tippengray.
13. Joan Lowrie.
14. Henrietta Stackpole.
15. Metta Ward.
16. Garda Thorne.
17. Kitty Ellison.
18. Christine Ludolph.
19. Mr. Dillingham.
20. Lois Howe.
21. Zoséphine.
22. Lopez Navarro.
23. Leigh Doane.
24. Tom Canty.
25. Mrs. Legrand.
26. Jacques Goffinet.
27. Messala.
28. Margaret Debree.
29. Allessandro.
30. Brom Bones.

PHYSIOLOGY.

1. Why was the trachea (the wind pipe) so called?

2. What are the cilia? what part do they play in respiration?

3. What is the white shining membrane which forms a covering for the lungs called?

4. Give the name of the muscular partition which separates the thoracic from the abdominal cavity, and which forms the great respiratory muscle.

5. How is the air kept replenished with oxygen when so much is constantly absorbed by the lungs of all animals?

6. Is it the presence of water in the lungs which causes death in drowning?

7. Why are most persons insensible to the certain danger of defective ventilation?

8. Name an appalling historical event in which a fearful destruction of life resulted from impure air?

9. By what fashion in dress as deadly in its results as imperfect ventilation are the cells of the lungs deprived of their proper supply of air?

10. What other style of dress interferes with free breathing?

BOTANY.

1. How may the age of a tree be told?

2. To what age do trees attain?

3. Are rings to be seen on the cross-sections of all trees? Why?

4. What name is applied to the arrangement and appearance of fibers in woods? Of what use is this arrangement in commerce?

5. What causes the bark to split or break off, as in the grapevine and apple tree?

6. In passing through a wood one notices that of all the trees that have been set on fire by lightning the majority are burnt out in the heart. Why there?

7. Why in all well-developed trees does the arrangement of the leaves on the stem agree with that of the branches; for instance, if the leaves are opposite on the stem, why are the branches opposite?

8. What size have the biggest trees in the world? What are they and where found?

9. What relation have coal, natural gas, petroleum, etc., to botany?

10. How have coal formations extended the knowledge of early vegetation?

WORLD OF TO-DAY—CHINA.

1. What people called China Cathay? Who wrote "Better fifty years of Europe than a cycle of Cathay"?

2. How does China Proper compare in size with the United States?

3. What work of destruction made the originator of the Tsin dynasty as infamous as the construction of the Great Wall made him famous?

4. During what time—called its Golden Age—was China the most civilized country on the face of the globe? By what Nestorian was Christianity preached there during this period?

5. When did the present foreign dynasty overthrow the Chinese and come into power?

6. What was the underlying purpose of the leader of the Taiping Rebellion which broke out in 1850?

7. What American diplomatist negotiated for the Chinese, as their ambassador to the United States and to the great European powers, treaties of amity with these nations?

8. When was the bill prohibiting the immigration of Chinese laborers passed in the United States Congress?

9. Who are supposed to be the instigators of the recent outbreaks in China against the foreign missionaries?

10. What is the impelling motive of these instigators?

11. With what excitable story are the minds of the superstitious Chinese inflamed in order to incite them to riot?

12. What book scattered widely among the people keeps alive this superstitious story?

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN FOR NOVEMBER.

AMERICAN FACTS AND FANCIES.

1. Gen. Spinner, Treasury of the United States during Lincoln's administration, was appealed to from all quarters to supply the demand for small change. Having no law under which to act, he purchased a quantity of stamps, pasted them on paper upon which Government securities are printed, cut it into various sizes to represent different amounts and thus initiated a substitute for fractional silver. It was called "postal currency." Gen. Spinner presented the idea to Congress and it was adopted in 1862 to be used as currency in sums of less than $5. 2. 1837. 3. 1798, 1799, 1800, 1816. 4. In 1864 on the copper two-cent issue. 5. First upon a half-penny or cent in New Jersey 1786–7. Dropped in 1837. 6. The $20 and $3 gold pieces and the "Bland" dollar. 7. When the designer, Morgan, came to the United States from England he was selected to make a design for a new dollar. He wished to present as the principal figure a representative head of an American beauty. Miss Anna Williams was selected as the subject, and was unconscious of the use to be made of her picture. 8. The first coins struck by the United States Mint were some half-dimes in 1792. 9. Martha Washington. 10. The original coinage was planned similar to the design of the field of the United States flag, to carry an additional star for each new state. The stars on the United States coinage are six-pointed, while those of the United States flag are five-pointed.

PHYSIOLOGY.

1. He noticed that the valves in the veins gave free passage of the blood toward the heart, but opposed its passage the other way. 2. They thought the heart was the seat of love. 3. The capillaries in which oxygen combining with the tissues of the body causes the heat. 4. It is communicated to the blood and carried by it through the system. 5. The pores of the skin.

6. When the body is unduly heated the quantity of vapor passing off through the pores is so greatly increased that it condenses in drops on the surface. 7. The constant flow of vapor from the body was checked by the gold leaf and the child was suffocated. 8. Because after death they contain only air. 9. Two, birds and mammals. 10. For two reasons: the capillary vessels are not strong enough to withstand the force of the heart when the external pressure of the air is lessened; and the effect of climbing increases the normal power of the heart.

BOTANY.

1. To organize dead, mineral matter into forms which alone are capable of becoming living substance. 2. The cuscuta (Dodder) does not. It has not even seed-leaves; but all other plants have leaves at some period of their existence with the exception of the Thallophytes (including lichens and the like). 3. Yes; because when exposed to sunshine plant leaves breathe in carbonic acid gas, which is injurious to animal life, and give forth oxygen, while animals inhale oxygen and exhale carbonic acid gas. 4. To the oxidation (rusting) of the coloring matter in the leaves. 5. In cold climates a lessening of the light and heat supply in winter causes the fluids of the leaf to evaporate and the cells and vessels to shrink, so that the functions of the leaf are hindered; inorganic matters accumulate in its parts, they become dry and lose their adherence and finally the leaf falls by its own weight or is blown away. 6. The fleshy part of the leaves. The sheath formed by the uniting of two stipules (leaf-like blades attached to the leaf stalk) around the leaf stalk. 7. It is a change of position, usually a drooping attitude of leaves, as night draws on,—supposed to be effected by some power in the plant itself. The leaves of some plants assume this position when brushed or jarred, and in many plants it has reference to their fertilization by insects. 8. The red clover turns up its leaves wrapping them around the stalk and forming a hood for the blossom; the locust and wood sorrel turn down their leaflets; the honey locust raises them upright; the sensitive plant turns them forward over one another. 9. When a storm is coming they contract their leaves together. 10. Formerly, operations both in field and garden were regulated by the leafing of the elm.

WORLD OF TO-DAY—CHILI.

1. An old Peruvian word meaning snow. 2. The incas of Peru. 3. In 1810. 4. Earthquakes; it might be called the land of earthquakes. 5. The Araucanians. 6. Gold, silver, and copper. 7. Bariloche Pass. 8. Along the desert coast of southern Peru, over which strip of land Chili holds sway. 9. A deposit of the salt of nitric acid, known as nitrate of soda; the Chilian nitrate is called Chili saltpeter. 10. The war of Chili against Peru and Bolivia lasting from 1879 to 1883, for the possession of the nitrate and guano beds. 11. Attempts on the part of President Balmaceda to assume dictatorial power. 12. For the insurgent party. 13. Iquique, and that being the port whence all the nitrate is shipped. They had possession of the funds from that great source. 14. Jorge Montt. 15. On the day after Christmas.

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882—1895.

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"Seek and ye shall obtain."

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"I wish to express to you the great comfort the readings have been to me each year, but especially this last, giving me an interest in outside things when sorrow alone pressed for recognition. Although reading alone for the examination I have succeeded in exciting the interest of several in the home circle, who read occasionally with me and we often speak of the great work that Chautauqua is doing."—*'92, New York City.*

A '92 FROM Georgia who has done all her work "carefully and conscientiously," writes, "I have learned to look below the surface and find the deeper meaning in everything."

A MEMBER of '92 in New York State secured the services of a Cornell professor who is himself a graduate of the C. L. S. C. Class of '82, held a public meeting in September and formed a circle of more than twenty members for the American Year. Cannot other '92's apply at least the rule of "ten times one is ten"?

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"Study to be what you wish to seem."

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District Secretaries—The Rev. T. H. Paden, New Concord, Ohio; the Rev. E. S. Porter, Bridgewater, Mass.; the Rev. Chas. Thayer, D.D., Minneapolis, Minn.; L. E. Welch, Albany, Ga.; the Rev. D. C. C. Simmons, Tyler, Texas; Mrs. Robt. Gentry, Chicago, Ill.

Treasurer—Prof. W. H. Scott, Syracuse, N. Y.

Class Trustee—George E. Vincent.

Executive Committee—Miss Kate Little, Connecticut; Prof. W. H. Scott; Mrs. Anthony.

Building Committee—The Rev. R. C. Dodds, Buffalo, N. Y.; Mrs. H. M. Anthony, Ottawa, Ill.

EMBLEM.—THE ACORN.

GREETING OF THE PRESIDENT.—Members of the Class of '93, we now enter upon our third year as Chautauquans. We have enjoyed the readings for the two years past. To those of us who have pursued the course in the right spirit many important historical, scientific, and religious facts have been discovered. We know many things about Rome and Great Britain which we never knew before, and which we might never have known but for the books and articles which Chautauqua has put into our hands. Much, however, as we may have enjoyed the past years of our course, I feel sure that we shall enjoy the present year more, at least those of us who live in America, for we are to study the history of America. What a glorious history it is! And how fortunate that we are permitted to study it just at this time, just on the eve of the anniversary of the discovery of America when the eyes of all nations will be upon her. Let us begin the work in earnest, and not suffer our interest to abate until we have completed the year's reading. Let us keep up with our work; it will then prove a pleasure rather than a drudgery. It was agreed at one of the meetings held at Chautauqua this past season, that we should request each one of our vice-presidents to write an article for THE CHAUTAUQUAN during the year, that we might hear from different parts of the country where the class is represented.

THE Treasurer of the Class writes:—We have raised but $150 of the $800 required of our class for the C. L. S. C. Class Building to be erected at Chautauqua. It is very necessary that we should do our part in providing funds for this home. To meet this want cards have been prepared and will be sent to members of the Class of '93 asking for such contributions as you may see fit to give. We urge you to contribute, that as a class we may not fall behind other classes in putting up and furnishing a home for all Chautauquans at the center of this great movement. Respond promptly and liberally. If you have already given and do not feel able to give again please say so on the card and return.

CLASS OF 1894.—"THE PHILOMATHEANS."

"Ubi mel, ibi apes."

OFFICERS.

President—John Habberton, New York City.

Vice-Presidents—The Rev. A. C. Ellis, Jamestown, N.Y.; the Rev. E. D. Ledyard, Steubenville, Ohio; the Rev. L. A. Banks, Boston, Mass.; the Rev. J. A. Cosby, Benkleman, Neb.; the Rev. Dr. Livingston, Toronto, Canada; Mrs. Helen Campbell, New York City; the Rev. J. W. Lee, D. D., Atlanta, Ga.

Secretary—Miss Grace D. Fowler, Buffalo, N. Y.

Treasurer—Mr. Henry M. Hall, Titusville, Pa.

Class Trustee—W. T. Everson, Union City, Pa.

Building Committee—William T. Everson, Union City, Pa.; Henry M. Hall, Titusville, Pa.; Mr. C. Foskey, Shamburg, Pa.; Miss Grace D. Fowler, Buffalo, N. Y.

CLASS FLOWER—CLOVER.

A '94 writes: "I am a grammar school teacher, anxious to fit myself for other work. I met so many college people at Chautauqua that my ignorance of some things became painfully apparent. I have a good high school education, but never took any of the languages. This winter I have commenced Latin and French—with my school duties I can do no more than this. I can never tell you what the C. L. S. C. has been to me, and my visit to Chautauqua is a thing to remember always."

MEMBERS of '94 who read last year of the C. L. S. C. work begun in the prison at Charlestown, Mass., will be interested in the following letter received in October from Chaplain Barnes: "I purchased six sets of books and magazines last year and let twelve of our boys take them for reading and study. I got permission for these prisoners to meet twice a week when the evenings were long, for an hour each evening, and when the evenings were short three times a week—thirty to forty-five minutes each night for the question exercises, etc. The twelve read the course through. I have this fall repeated the effort, taking six sets and seven magazines, and twelve men are well at the course for the present year. One 'six' is the same as last year. The influence of the reading has been excellent to the men as an awakening and an inspiration which has done much to change lines of thought and habits of reading for the good of many besides themselves."

CLASS OF 1895.—"THE PATHFINDERS."

"The truth shall make you free."

President—Dr. H. B. Adams, Baltimore, Md.

Vice-Presidents—The Rev. Dr. Wilbur Crafts, New York; Miss Grace Dodge, New York; Mrs. Olive A. James, Rimersburg, Pa.; Miss Mary Davenport, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mr. Frank O. Flynn Belleville Ont.; the Rev. William M. Hayes, Oxford, Ga.; the Rev. Hervey Wood, Passaic, N. J.; Mrs. E. H. Durgin, Portland, Ore.; Miss Carrie L. Turrentine, Gadsden, Ala.; Mr. Thomas Nelson Page, Richmond, Va.; Mrs. R. H. I. Goddard, Providence, R. I.

Corresponding Secretary—Jane Mead Welch, Buffalo, N. Y.

Recording Secretary—Miss Mary E. Miller, Akron, O.

Treasurer—Mrs. E. C. Thompson, Litchfield, Ill.

Trustee of the Building Fund—The Rev. Fred. L. Thompson, Litchfield, Ill.

CLASS FLOWER—CHRYSANTHEMUM.

THE Class of '95 continues to sustain the reputation which it made at Chautauqua. The American Year is meeting with a cordial reception all over the country, and the enrollment of the class already considerably exceeds that of '94 at a corresponding time last year.

THE following letter may suggest to '95 Chautauquans a comparatively undeveloped field for the C. L. S. C.: "I am one of the Class of '90 who pledged myself to do something this year for the C. L. S. C. We are in the dry goods business and there are in our house some forty to fifty employees to whom we have made a proposition to put in a free circulating Chautauqua library for the use of as many as will become members of the Class of '95. Fifteen have given me their names, and I expect the number will soon swell to twenty-five. We have agreed to be with them occasionally at their circle meetings and assist them all we can."

THE C. L. S. C. membership book for '91–2 is a most attractive and valuable aid to C.L.S.C. students. Let every '95 enroll promptly at the Central Office and secure all available helps.

A WORKING girls' club in Massachusetts is agitating the question of a C. L. S. C. They hope to have a working membership of at least half a dozen. Success to them.

FROM the very beginning of the C. L. S. C., public school teachers and principals have thrown themselves heartily into the work. Two letters recently received give additional proofs of the interest and co-operation of public school officers. The first is from New York State: "As principal of the public school of this village I feel a deep interest in those members of our community who have been denied the privilege of a thorough training and would like to do something to benefit them. Your course has been recommended to me. Please send full information as I think a large circle can be formed here this year." The other comes from Connecticut: "Inspired by a week's visit at Chautauqua during August (though I must admit that it was not exactly a first inspiration) I concluded to work up a circle among the young people who in the last twenty-six years have been my high school pupils. This is a remarkably busy town, full of organizations, social life, and entertainments, but nearly twenty responded to my article in the daily paper ready to begin reading the Chautauqua course."

GRADUATE CLASSES.

THE new two years' course in American history for graduates is meeting with much favor. The pamphlet of suggestions, test questions, and recommended books is sent to each student who pays the fee of fifty cents. These suggestions have been prepared by a college professor who is also a member of the C. L. S. C. Class of '95.

THE three years' course of study in English History and Literature for C. L. S. C. graduates is also attracting large numbers of students. Many who began the course two years ago are now enrolling for the third year, while others who have not joined before but who are desirous of studying special periods are enrolling for the first, second, or third year.

COURSES in the Gospel of St. John and in the Life of Christ offer excellent opportunities for study to Sunday-school teachers. Both graduate and undergraduate members are showing their appreciation of these advantages.

A PIONEER from Florida writes: "Though far away from Chautauqua, I am not beyond the influence of the C. L. S. C. There is no organized circle here, but a few graduates and undergraduates are trying to keep up their acquaintance with the great circle of the world's workers."

THE address of the president of the Pioneers is Mrs. B. T. Vincent, Pueblo, Colorado.

GUILD OF SEVEN SEALS.

AT a meeting of the Guild of the Seven Seals the following officers were elected:

President—Mrs. Wm. Hoffman, Englewood, N. J.

First Vice-President—Mrs. T. G. Young, Rochester, N. Y.

Second Vice-President—Mrs. Samuel Knight, St. Louis, Mo.

Secretary and Treasurer—Mrs. E. F. Curtiss, Geneseo, N. Y.

Executive Committee—Miss Eunice Tuttle, Busti, N. Y.; Miss M. F. Wells, Athens, Alabama; Miss Kate A. Comstock, Pana, Ill.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"*We Study the Word and the Works of God.*" "*Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst.*"
"*Never be Discouraged.*"

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.
BRYANT DAY—November 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—November, second Sunday.
WASHINGTON DAY—December 5.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
LINCOLN DAY—January 1.
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.
SHAKSPERE DAY—April 23.
ADDISON DAY—May 1.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday; anniversary of C. L. S. C. at Chautauqua.
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday; anniversary of the dedication of St. Paul's Grove at Chautauqua.
RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday after the first Tuesday.

AMONG the many pleasant things in regard to the various circle unions and conventions which newspaper reports reveal, is the addition to the fund of current phrases of a number of quotable new epigrams, which cannot fail to enrich the language. This however is only a small item of what might be said in regard to the character of these meetings. The more there are of them the greater the number of their desirable attributes is shown to be.

One of the most practical and enjoyable gatherings of this kind was the annual Chautauqua Convention of the State of New York. It was held in Plymouth Church, Syracuse, September 25–26. The opening address was made by the Rev. E. N. Packard, pastor of the Plymouth Church. Dr. R. S. Pardington, who is first vice-president of the Convention and president of the Brooklyn Union, presided. Greetings and congratulations were telegraphed to the convention by Mr. Lewis Miller and Mr. George E. Vincent.

Miss Kate F. Kimball read the minutes of the convention held in Brooklyn, October 22–23, 1890. Roll-call showed a good attendance, and letters of regret were read from circles that were not represented. Mrs. E. Curtis discussed "How to Make a Circle Interesting." She advised the study of the agriculture, animals, and minerals of the country; the genius, the literature, newspaper growth; the imports, exports, railroads, and other things affecting the general welfare. Thomas G. Young, president of the Rochester Union, Principal H. H. Barrett, Dr. William A. Duncan, secretary of the Chautauqua Assembly, and several others were heard from in well directed remarks. Att'y George W. Driscoll told "What the C. L. S. C. does for a Busy Man." Other topics that received skillful treatment were "The C. L. S. C. and General Culture," by the Rev. A. H. Fahnestock, who also lectured on "What Culture does for the Masses," "Some Reasons for Studying American History," by Principal W. K. Wickes, and "The C. L. S. C., Its Fields of Work," by Miss Kate F. Kimball. On the second day Prof. William H. Scott presided over the platform meeting. Dr. Pardington made the address of the evening. Not the least instructive and animated feature of the Convention was the informal discussions on C. L. S. C. work.

IN the line of suggestion, we clip a page from the history of the John C. Van Dyke Circle of Martin's Ferry, Ohio:

"The circle meets every other Monday evening from 7:30 to 10:00 at the home of one of the members. The president appoints a committee of two, who with himself prepare the program for the month, which is printed each Thursday in the daily paper. The circle aims to have two open meetings each year, for which a special literary program is prepared. In 1890, the Roman year, the year's work closed with a Roman symposium."

IN the loyal attempt of every circle for its own good as well as for the good of the cause to become this year the most ingenious and successful circle that has yet attempted the course, it would be well to sum up the advantages and disadvantages with which it will have to contend. Enough of the latter to spice the occasion no doubt will be easily found. An inspiration in regard to the former may be gained from a poem by Mrs. M. H. Field, which she read before the graduating class at Pacific Grove Assembly, July 10, 1891

GOOD OLD TIMES.

To the C. L. S. C. Class of '91 by a Member of the Class of '83.

O friends of the Chautauqua cult,
How happy you should be,
Your lines are cast in '91
And not in '83!

For in those days, those good old days,
The founders of our School
Experimented on our brains
With test-tube and with rule.

They thought because we were so old
We didn't want to play,
And by mistake they counted for-
ty-eight hours to the day.
They gave us books of mighty length
And depth to match the same,—
My friends, you'd scarce believe your ears
If I those books should name.

You read a little book on Rome,
A pleasant evening's tale;
We wrestled through five hundred leaves
Of stately Merivale.
Your book about the ancient Greeks
You read while you play tennis,
But quite another game we had
With T. T. Timayenis.

What would these new Chautauquans think
If they were set to glean
The field of English history
Along with Mr. Green?
And then the science that we learned,
And literature, and art!
Ah well, it never could have been
Had we not been so smart!

We rose before the dawn of day,
We burned our midnight oil,—
The things we knew when we got through
To tell you were a toil.
And all this lore of earth and sky
We had to learn it pat,
Those ancient "memoranda" made
A certain thing of that.

GRADUATE CIRCLES.

About ten persons in Parkersburg, West Virginia, are beginning their graduate studies in American History.

Several new post-graduates of Berea, Ohio, pursue the first year's course of reading in English History and Literature.

A new post-graduate circle of Grand Crossing, Illinois, studies the American special course.

The graduate circles reorganized at New Haven, Conn., Blue Earth City, Minn., Topeka, Kans., and Pueblo, Colo., have resumed their special readings.

NEW CIRCLES.

MEXICO.—Puebla has an unusual circle, five of the seven members being missionaries.

CANADA.—A local circle has organized with bright prospects at Brussels, Ontario.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Home Circle of Whitinsville is composed of five members, all teachers in the public schools.——A large company of workers in Worcester call themselves the Haven Circle.

CONNECTICUT.—An interesting class of ex-high school pupils are about to begin the Chautauqua course at New Britain.——If there is anything in a name the Teachers' Circle of Waterbury indicates an able corps of workers.

NEW YORK.—More than twenty-five persons at Big Flats have enlisted for the Class of '95, with the motto, "There is no excellency without labor."——A new circle at Brooklyn has dubbed itself Philosophian.——Eddytown, Flatbush, Jamestown, Plattsburgh, Troy, all have new circles.

NEW JERSEY.—Twenty persons have laid claim for places in the circumference of the new circle forming at Passaic.——The new class organized at Perth Amboy has taken to itself the name Ompoge Circle.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Promising new circles report from Lansdowne, Lincoln Falls, and North East.—Philadelphia has three young classes all yet unnamed, one of which consists of three teachers in the Friends' School at Germantown. A fourth circle has a large membership and meets in the 19th St. M. E. Church; a fifth circle at Philadelphia is called the Clover, and has for a motto, "Perseverance overcometh all difficulties."——Punxsutawney has an organized body of C. L. S. C. students.——A family circle of three at Warren is applying its youth and enterprise to the C. L. S. C. study course.——The new circle at Waterford meets every Monday night at the M. E. parsonage. Its program indicates earnestness and enjoyment in the meetings.

MARYLAND.—The Washington Irving C.L.S.C. of Baltimore unites with the Class of '95.——The young people of the Presbyterian Church at Pocomoke City constitute the Westminster League Circle.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—A thriving circle has lately come into existence at Georgetown.

WEST VIRGINIA.—An epidemic of enthusiasm in Chautauqua work has reached Wheeling. In September an organization was effected with enough people to make three circles, which accordingly will meet weekly in different parts of the city, uniting in a joint meeting once a month. Nearly all who enrolled will be regular members.

GEORGIA.—Athens reports a new group of Chautauquans.

ALABAMA.—A large and growing circle of enterprising people has been established at Gadsden.——A number of young people have been at work in Mobile laying the foundation for a circle.

LOUISIANA.—A permanent organization has been effected at Baton Rouge.

TEXAS.—The Edelweiss Chautauqua Circle is a recent development at Tyler.

OHIO.—A prosperous band of twenty-one

members have begun their studies in a happy, businesslike manner at Columbus.——A zealous graduate of '89 has started a circle at Ironton.——Toledo has a new class of fifteen C. L. S. C. students.

INDIANA.—The circle at Danville is very promising thus early in its infancy.

ILLINOIS.—Brighton, Duquoin, and Greenfield are the scenes of new circle activity.—— The Grace C. L. S. C. at Springfield starts with sixteen members.——Twenty inhabitants of Vandalia have united for progressive study.—— A goodly number of Presbyterians at Virden have joined the Class of '95.

MICHIGAN.—Au Train has a double trio of new C. L. S. C. workers.——The Bellaire Chautauqua Circle has enrolled itself; also the Hall C. L. S. C. of Flint.

WISCONSIN.—New circles are at Mondovi and Monroe.

MINNESOTA.—Substantial beginnings for new circles have been made at Appleton and Minneapolis.

IOWA.—There are good local circles at Corydon, Earlham, Letts, Mount Ayr, and Stuart; and a company known as the Columbia C. L. S. C. at Dubuque.

MISSOURI.—A foreign missionary to Japan reports from Warrensburg that she wishes to continue reading in Class '95.——The Satné Chautauqua Circle of St. Joseph, starting with fourteen members, is doing finely.——Corder, Schell City, and Trenton have circles also.

KANSAS.—Strong organizations have commenced study at Herington and Howard.—— Much is expected of the circle at Ottawa, which is remarkable for the great number and ability of its members. Its membership aggregates about seventy.——At Wichita fifty persons have ventured to test the C. L. S. C. labors and rewards.

NEBRASKA.—Cicero Circle reports from Hastings.

NEVADA.—A dozen persons at Hawthorne constitute a circle for C. L. S. C. work.

OREGON.—A circle has been formed at Astoria.

IDAHO.—Nampa has a new circle.

WASHINGTON.—The second meeting of the Harvard Club of Seattle ranked it among the ambitious circles. The minutes and constitution were read, after which the secretary reported the letter of congratulations together with the documents received from the secretary of Harvard College. The literary program followed, concluding with an address on the timely subject, the founding of colleges. Twenty persons were present.

CALIFORNIA.—A busy circle is a feature of Ferndale.——Phillips Club of Los Angeles reports very interesting sessions.——Eagle Rock Circle thrives in Eagle Rock Valley, near Los Angeles.——A newly organized class of Chautauquans reports from South Riverside.

RENEWED CIRCLES.

HAWAII.—The Lei Aloha Circle of Hilo has been making practical study of the geological growth of their group of islands under the leadership of a specialist in geology. In its course of three years this circle has kept up its full number of members, and expects to graduate ten with the Class of '92. The secretary writes:

"Our enthusiasm grows upon us. A most interesting feature of our meetings the past year was 'Walks in London.' Every Wednesday afternoon for three months we have rambled in London, guided by one of our members, who brings maps, photographic views, diagrams of buildings, illustrated books, magazine articles, etc., to rivet our attention on each famous locality. This member lives five miles from our village, and our London Walks were memorably ended by the entire circle spending a whole day at her charming home, looking at innumerable pictures bearing on London scenes and incidents, and listening to graphic readings on the same subject."

——The circle at Honolulu has begun the new year promptly.

CANADA.—Pleasant Hour Circle of Brantford, Ontario, has had its favorite quotations from English authors bound in a beautiful little book with dainty white and gold cover.——Alpha Circle of Galt reorganized with a present membership of twenty-nine and a prospect of more.—— Dundas Street Center C. L. S. C. of London has attracted a large membership.——The Eisesmen Circle of Toronto resumes work with the usual membership.——The Watford circle perseveres with about the same number.

MAINE.—The students of Chautauqua literature at Phippsburg continue to flourish.——Beauchamp Circle of Rockport is in a prosperous condition.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Arlington Local Circle reports more members than ever before.——Bridgewater Circle is characterized by much spirit which exhibits itself in good programs, numerous rhythmic reviews, and frequent meetings. ——Mount Tulley C. L. S. C. of Orange reorganized with pleasant prospects.——Sunderland has a promising circle.

RHODE ISLAND.—The Deltas of Newport are still active.

CONNECTICUT.—The Truth Seekers of Cheshire have renewed their meeting, likewise the Hawthornes of Forestville.

NEW YORK.—The prospects of the Belleville Philomatheans are very bright, the last year of study having been unusually profitable and pleasant. Indeed all their past forms a very

good foundation on which to build hopes for the future. They say:

"We organized seven years ago, with fifteen members. Several of these have graduated, and nearly all are still active workers in the circle. Our membership and, we believe, our influence for good in the community, have steadily advanced. We now number thirty, with a probability of many additions. It is cheerfully conceded by all, that among the educational forces of this, one of the oldest academy towns in the state, we rank with the best.

"We closed last year with a miniature 'Assembly' which was so enjoyable that all our guests seemed to drink in of the Chautauqua spirit, and many resolved to enroll themselves among its workers."

——Strong Place C. L. S. C. of Brooklyn has prepared itself for a hopeful year.——Janes Circle of Brooklyn is composed of thirty-five members.——A small but earnest circle of three is doing good work at Centre Moriches.——Delphi reports favorably.——The Harverstraw Chautauquans are numerous and united.——Jamestown has a large circle in active service.——The Mary A. Lathbury Circle at Manchester is at work propagating the "Chautauqua idea."——The Agassiz of New York City is very enthusiastic. The following is gleaned from a bright, newsy letter: The West Harlem Circle of New York City at its second meeting elected its officers for the ensuing year, and changed its name to Vincent Circle. The names of Lowell, Longfellow, and other distinguished Americans were suggested but Vincent was adopted as the most appropriate, suggestive, and inspiring in connection with the Chautauqua studies. The West Harlem has been in existence six years and has always been an active and aggressive circle. To its officers is due the organization of the Chautauqua Union of New York City. The Vincent starts with twenty-six members, and is endeavoring to organize other circles in the upper part of the city.——New Prospect Circle of Pine Bush has a number of post-graduates who will take special courses.——The following comes from Rochester:

"The Polenagnian Chautauqua Circle has resumed work with the most encouraging prospects. The weekly meetings offer such attractions as a very interesting paper on the discovery of America, an exhaustive treatise on Columbus, and a paper on the effects of the discovery of America in Europe. The treatment of the subjects named were remarkably fine and evidently fully enjoyed by all present.

"At the close of the regular program, a brief report was given of the State Convention of Chautauquans recently held in Syracuse. The report showed the deep interest in C. L. S. C. work which is being felt by leaders in the movement, and the spreading beneficial influence of the work. The uplifting moral and intellectual effect resulting from a wise and economical use of the opportunities which this home college affords were presented in a forcible manner, and the patriotic interest centering around the present year's course of reading was held up as a stimulus in the work.

"A number of new circles are being organized in Rochester, and the outlook for the coming year is indicative of increased interest."

——Mosaic C. L. S. C. of Rochester sends a remarkably clever outline for "twenty topical studies in American history and literature." This provides for semi-monthly meetings for the year, and is a good earnest of the profitable disposal of the circle's abilities.——A zealous circle responds from Ithaca.——The Clionian of Nunda has thirty enrolled.

NEW JERSEY.—Central Circle of Bridgeton has thirty-one recruits.——Bergen Circle of Jersey City Heights, the Earnest Workers of Flemington, and Robert Street Circle of Union are all at work.

PENNSYLVANIA.—At Beaver Falls, Buffalo, Ercildoun, Hazelton, Mahoningtown, Philadelphia, Reading, Saegertown, Scotland, and Steelton, Chautauqua interests are advancing.——Longfellow Circle at Philadelphia is large, and growing in size and importance.

MARYLAND.—Salisbury has an industrious club, the Wicomico.

WEST VIRGINIA.—The C. L. S. C. in Martinsburg reorganized October 5, under very favorable auspices. Two new members were present and others are expected. The whole meeting was enthusiastic and proved that all felt refreshed by their summer's rest and ready to begin hard work again. Officers for the coming year were elected and time and place for next meeting appointed. The circle has eight regular members and others who are doing good work. As yet however it has not succeeded in interesting the men, but the "Hopeful Neophytes" *hope* to succeed so well this winter that they will win many new members.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—The circle at Honea Path reorganized with increased membership.

KENTUCKY.—Attractive C. L. S. C. gatherings are reported from Belleview.

ALABAMA.—The Tuskegee Circle is a success socially and intellectually.

TEXAS.—Slow but sure is the progress of the Chaucer Circle of Huntsville.——Rusk has a bright circle which begins in a businesslike way.——Circles flourish at San Marcos and Wylie.

OHIO.—Encouraging news comes from Ashland, Bellaire, Central Circle of Columbus, Coshocton, Dayton, Lima, Middletown, Newark, New Richmond, Piqua, Piketon, Steubenville, and Toledo.——Urbana C. L. S. C. is larger and its meetings better attended than formerly. It rejoices in an efficient and well-informed president.

INDIANA.—That the active circle at Logansport is hopeful may be concluded from the magnitude of some of its plans. It already is con-

sidering the possibility of going in a body to Chautauqua to see several of its members pass through the Golden Gate. Its programs show thoughtfulness and spirit.——A reader at Wheatland says:

"I live in a small country town where I have few opportunities for keeping myself from rusting out mentally. Leading a very busy life I could not get along without the stimulus of the Chautauqua work. It is hard for me to find time, but I try to get a little every day."

ILLINOIS.—The Chicago mail reveals the fact that there is a delightful C. L. S. C. in Kenwood, and that Outlook Circle of the Third Presbyterian Church of Chicago is advancing toward its ideal.——The secretary of Beta Circle, Delavan, sends new names for enrollment.——The Argos of Macomb all belong to the Class of '89.——Mount Carmel's Mound Builders keep building higher their standpoint in order to secure a wider horizon.——The following lines are clipped from a poem by Mrs. E. S. Marquis, a member of The Harmony at Onarga:

I reveled mid the morning stars,
And caught their anthems clear—
The same sweet chords they struck at first,
When angels bent to hear—
And thought of one whose brightness fell
O'er Bethlehem's plain and hill;
The wise men follow it as then,
And find the Savior still.

. . . . . .

Up from the western prairies wide,
From east to west, from lake to sea.
Our country's glad Te Deum rings
In freedom's song of jubilee!
Last known and fairest spot on earth,
We claim thee ours by right of birth;
Land of the "brave and free,"
"Our hearts, our hopes, our prayers, our tears,
Our faith triumphant o'er our fears,
Are all with thee!"

So, one by one, the circles sent
A message, sweet and strong,
And music often kindly lent
Her blessed "wings of song."

Ring on, O sweet Chautauqua bells,
Till all the listening world shall hear,
Above earth's low, discordant notes,
The angels' anthem, soft and clear.

Whatever hand holds out to man
The "olive branch" of helpful deed
We own, with glad fraternal clasp,
And bid the noble work God-speed.

——Echoes of industry come from Alcott Circle of Pontiac, and from Prophetstown.——Mars Circle of Woodlawn Park pursues its way under favorable auspices. It numbers in its ranks several post-graduates and new members.——The Yates City class has added to its membership several new students.

MICHIGAN.—Brief but good news is heard from Cerdic Circle of Detroit.——A long roll of names is returned from Dowagiac.——There are busy Chautauquans at Howell and Republic.

MINNESOTA.—Crookston has a fine circle.——There is also a lively circle at Owatonna.

IOWA.—The Gleaners at Dubuque are still at work.——Griswold, Malcom, and Olin, are zealous in Chautauqua work.

MISSOURI.—Brookfield has a promising circle.——A persevering trio, the Asterians of Miami, who have read by themselves for two years have been joined by eleven comrades. Their president has ten seals on her diploma, of which one is the golden crown.——A series of C. L. S. C. meetings is in progress at Mountain Grove.

KANSAS.—Centralia Chautauqua Circle is an enterprising body of persons. Last year it resolved itself into two sections, one, all of ladies, meeting Tuesday afternoon and the other meeting the evening of the same day. It reviewed English by giving each member a character to defend and trying him at law, appointing the jurymen from the guests present. Henry the Eighth, George the Third, and some others had trouble in convincing those present that their deeds were all just. Only three were condemned.——A sturdy circle at Topeka consists mostly of new members.——The Sunflowers of Wichita are still following the light.

NEBRASKA.—A local circle is flourishing at Benkleman, also at Scribner.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—The Madisonians of Madison have reported favorably for the current year.

CALIFORNIA.—The Live Oak Circle of Alameda has a vigorous start. At its second meeting the following thorough and brilliant program was carried out by its members:

Roll Call,—Quotations on America.
Minutes.
Reports of Referee.
Three-minute digest of Sunday Reading in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for October.
Three-minute digest of "National Agencies."
Three-minute digest of "Domestic and Social Life."
Questions, "Social Institutions."
Violin Solo.
Recess, Sociability.
Questions, American History.
Reading, "Miss Flite in Chancery."
Questions in Physiology (Volunteer answers).
Report of Pronunciator.

——A good-sized nucleus for a circle has been formed away in the mountains near Fairmont. Some of the members journey seven miles to the gathering.

THE LIBRARY TABLE.

WASHINGTON IN ENGLISH FICTION.

MR. ESMOND called his American house Castlewood, from the patrimonial home in the old country. The whole usages of Virginia, indeed, were fondly modeled after the English customs. The gentry dwelt on their great lands after a fashion almost patriarchal. At length the time came when Mr. Esmond was to have done with the affairs of this life, and he laid them down as if glad to be rid of their burden. No such sumptuous funeral had ever been seen in the country as that which Madam Esmond Warrington ordained for her father. The little lads of Castlewood, almost smothered in black trains and hatbands, headed the procession, and were followed by my Lord Fairfax from Greenway Court, by his Excellency the Governor of Virginia (with his coach), by the Randolphs, the Careys, the Harrisons, the Washingtons, and many others, for the whole country esteemed the departed gentleman. . . . . .

The Castlewood boys were fourteen years of age and Mrs. Mountain was their special friend.

"Your mamma was talking about you to Mr. Washington the other day, when I came into the room. I don't like that Major Washington, you know I don't. Don't say,—'O Mounty!' Master Harry. You always stand up for your friends, you do. The Major is very handsome and tall, and he may be very good, but he is much too *old* a young man for me. Bless you, my dears, the quantity of wild oats your father sowed and my own poor Mountain when they were Ensigns in Kingsley's, would fill sacks full! Show me Mr. Washington's wild oats, I say,—not a grain."

There was scarce half a dozen years' difference of age between him and the Castlewood twins; but Mr. Washington had always been remarked for a discretion and sobriety much beyond his time of life, whilst the boys of Castlewood seemed younger than theirs. They had always been till now under their mother's anxious tutelage, and had looked up to their neighbor of Mount Vernon as their guide, director, friend,—as, indeed, almost everybody seemed to do who came in contact with the simple and upright young man. Himself of the most scrupulous gravity and good-breeding, in his communication with other folks he appeared to exact or, at any rate, to occasion, the same behavior. His nature was above levity and jokes: they seemed out of place when addressed to him. He was slow of comprehending them: and they slunk as it were abashed out of his society.

"He always seemed great to me," says Harry Warrington, in one of his letters many years after the date of which we are writing; "and I never thought of him otherwise than as a hero. When he came over to Castlewood and taught us boys surveying, to see him riding to hounds was as if he was charging an army. If he fired a shot, I thought the bird must come down, and if he flung a net, the largest fish in the river were sure to be in it. His words were always few, but they were always wise; they were not idle, as our words are, they were grave, sober, and strong, and ready on occasion to do their duty." . . . . . .

George Warrington, the one of the twins who fought on the English side during the Revolution, wrote at its close:

"The prize is not always to the brave. In our Revolution it certainly did fall for once to the most deserving; but who knows his enemies now? His great and surprising triumphs were not in those rare engagements with the enemy where he obtained a trifling mastery; but over Congress; over hunger and disease; over lukewarm friends, or smiling foes in his own camp, whom his great spirit had to meet and master. When the struggle was over, and our impotent chiefs who had conducted it began to squabble and accuse each other in their own defence before the nation,—what charges and counter-charges were brought; what pretexts of delay were urged; what piteous excuses were put forward that this fleet arrived too late; that that regiment mistook its orders; that these cannon-balls would not fit those guns; and so to the end of the chapter! Here was a general who beat us with *no* shot at times, and no powder, and no money; and *he* never thought of a convention; *his* courage never capitulated! Through all the doubt and darkness, the danger and long tempest of the war, I think it was only the American leader's indomitable soul that remained entirely steady."

The following shows the opinion of Harry Warrington, the other twin, who fought on the American side:

"We walked into Mrs. Washington's tea-room arm-in-arm," Hal said; "she looked up quite kind, and saw we were friends."

"Ah!" says the Chief, "an open enemy I can face readily enough. 'Tis the secret foe who causes the doubt and anguish! We have sat with more than one at my table to-day to whom I am obliged to show a face of civility, whose hands I must take when they are offered, though I know they are stabbing my reputation, and are eager to pull me down from my place. You spoke but lately of being humiliated because a junior was set over you in command. What humiliation to play the farce of welcome to these traitors; to have to bear the neglect of Congress, and see men who have insulted me promoted in my own army. If I consulted my own feelings as a man, would I continue in this command? You know whether my temper is naturally warm or not, and whether as a private gentleman I should be likely to suffer such slights and outrages as are put upon me daily; but in the advancement of the sacred cause in which we are engaged, we have to endure not only hardship and danger, but calumny and wrong, and may God give us strength to do our duty!"

"As I thought of the Chief," said Hal, "talking at night in the silence of the camp, and remembered how lonely he was, what an awful responsibility he carried; how spies and traitors were eating out of his dish, and an enemy lay in front of him who might at any time overpower him I thought to myself, 'Sure, this is the greatest man now in the world.'"—*Arranged from Thackeray's "The Virginians."*

BATTLE OF TRENTON.

THIS is an anonymous contemporary poem on the crossing of the Delaware amid the ice, and the capture of the Hessian troops in Trenton, December 26, 1776.

On Christmas day in seventy-six,
Our ragged troops with bayonets fixed,
For Trenton marched away.
The Delaware see! the boats below!
The light obscured by hail and snow!
But no signs of dismay.

Our object was the Hessian band,
That dared invade fair freedom's land,
And quarter in that place.
Great Washington he led us on,
Whose streaming flag, in storm or sun,
Had never known disgrace.

In silent march we passed the night,
Each soldier panting for the fight,
Though quite benumbed with frost.
Greene on the left, at six began,
The right was led by Sullivan,
Who ne'er a moment lost.

The pickets stormed, the alarm was spread,
The rebels risen from the dead
Were marching into town.
Some scampered here, some scampered there,
And some for action did prepare;
But soon their arms laid down.

Twelve hundred servile miscreants,
With all their colors, guns, and tents,
Were trophies of the day.
The frolic o'er, the bright canteen
In center, front, and rear was seen,
Driving fatigue away.

Now, brothers of the patriot bands,
Let 's sing deliverance from the hands
Of arbitrary sway.
And as our life is but a span,
Let 's touch the tankard while we can,
In memory of that day.

RAMBLING.

THE practice of sauntering may especially be recommended as a corrective of the modern vice of continual reading. For too many of us it has come to be well-nigh impossible to sit down by ourselves without turning around instinctively in search of a book or a newspaper. The habit indicates a vacancy of mind, a morbid intellectual restlessness, and may not inaptly be compared to that incessant delirious activity which those who are familiar with deathbed scenes know so well as a symptom of approaching dissolution. Possibly the two cases are not in all respects analogous. Books are an inestimable boon; let me never be without the best of them, both old and new. Still, one would fain have an occasional thought of one's own, even though, as the common saying is, it be nothing to speak of. Meditation is an old-fashioned exercise, the very word is coming to have an almost archaic sound; but neither the word nor the thing will altogether pass into forgetfulness so long as the race of saunterers—the spiritual descendants of Isaac—continue to inherit the earth.

There is little danger that the lives of any of us will be too solitary or lived at too leisurely a rate. The world grows busier and busier. Those whose passion for Nature is strongest and most deep-seated are driven to withhold from her all but the odds and ends of the day. We rebel sometimes; the yoke grows unendurable; come what may, we will be quit of it; but the existing order of things proves too strong for us, and

anon we settle back into the old bondage. And perhaps it is better so. Even the most simple and natural delights are best appreciated when rarely and briefly enjoyed. So I persuade myself that, all in all, it is good for me to have only one or two hours a day for the woods. Human nature is weak; who knows but I might grow lazy, were I my own master? At least, "the fine point of seldom pleasure" would be blunted.*—*Bradford Torrey.*

THE LAST BATTLE OF THE REVOLUTION.

DOCTOR ALEXANDER ANDERSON, who died in January, 1870, at the age of nearly ninety-five years, was the pioneer wood-engraver in America. I knew Doctor Anderson intimately for thirty years, and from the well of his experience with the bucket of a most tenacious memory I drew copious draughts of information concerning long-past events in the city of New York, where he was born, and resided for ninety years.

"Have you any recollections of the evacuation of New York by the British?" I asked one day.

"Not much," he replied, "for I was only between eight and nine years old then—eight in April, and that was late in November, you know. I have a very particular remembrance of one event of that day," he continued. "I saw the whole of the last battle of the Revolution. It was fought in New York."

"Tell me the story, if you please," I said.

"Opposite our house was a boarding house kept by Benjamin Day. His wife was really the proprietor. She was a comely, stout-built woman, about forty years old, and was of a Dutch family at Hackensack, N. J. She was an ardent Whig, and possessed a brave heart and a stubborn will. She could never conceal her opinions, and many a bout she had with her tongue among her Tory neighbors. The British, you may remember, claimed the right of possession of the city until noon on the day fixed for the evacuation. It was conceded by the Americans, and the troops under Washington and Governor Clinton and other civil officers halted at Chatham Square and beyond until the British began to move toward their shipping at a little past noon. Mrs. Day's patriotism was too intense and her joy too impatient to allow her to wait until noon to give them visible expression. So as soon as she breakfasted that morning she raised the American flag on a pole which she had planted in front of her dwelling in anticipation of the great event of the day.

"About nine o'clock in the morning, a bright and frosty one, I was sitting on the porch of our house in the sunshine, enjoying the sight of the beautiful flag waving in a gentle breeze, when I saw a burly, red-faced British officer, in full uniform and unattended, walking rapidly down the street. Mrs. Day was quietly sweeping in front of her house. In a loud and angry tone and coarse, rough voice, and pointing toward the Stars and Stripes, he demanded:

"'Who hoisted that rebel flag?'

"Mrs. Day said in a firm voice, made more vehement by her indignation, 'It is not a rebel flag, sir, but the flag of a free people. Who are you?'

"'Pull down that flag!' roared the red-faced Briton in a rage, 'or you'll find out to your cost who I am.'

"'Who *are* you?' again inquired Mrs. Day.

"'I'm his Majesty's provost-marshal, charged not to allow a rebel flag to fly in this town before noon to-day. Pull down that flag!'

"'I will not do it,' said Mrs. Day firmly, keeping her eyes fixed on the glowing face of the angry officer. 'I raised that flag with my own hands. If the king himself stood where you do and commanded me to pull it down I wouldn't do it.'

"'Hurrah!' shouted a man from an upper window of her house.

"'You cursed rebel in petticoats!' exclaimed the officer. 'If you were not a woman I'd hang you on the spot. That rebel rag *shall* come down!'

"'He seized the halyards, when Mrs. Day sprang forward like a roused tigress, and with her broom struck the intruder upon the head with heavy and rapid blows. His hat went off at the first blow, and she made the powder fly from his wig. I saw it glisten in the sunlight like a little spray. A brutal nature is always a cowardly one. As the man in the window shouted 'Hurrah!' lustily, and the woman's weapon was not at rest a moment, the burly Briton, no doubt believing that prudence is the better part of valor, released his hold of the halyards, snatched up his hat from the ground, and moved off as rapidly as he came, muttering curses. Mrs. Day was left the valiant mistress of her castle, with her banner waving in triumph."*—*Benson J. Lossing, LL.D.*

THE SAYINGS OF POOR RICHARD.

DOST thou love Life? Then do not squander Time; for that's the Stuff Life is made of.

*A Rambler's Lease. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

*Hours with the Living Men and Women of the Revolution. New York: Funk and Wagnalls.

Good Sense is a Thing all need, few have, and none think they want.

The Sting of a Reproach is the Truth of it.

Half Hospitality opens his Door, and shuts up his countenance.

'Tis a strange Forest that has no rotten Wood in 't.

And a strange Kindred that all are good in 't.

There is no Man so bad but he secretly respects the Good.

Courage would fight, but Discretion won't let him.

A good Example is the best Sermon.

A quiet Conscience sleeps in Thunder, but Rest and Guilt live far asunder.

Better is a little with content than much with contention.

What signifies your Patience, if you can't find it when you want it?

If Passion drives, let Reason hold the Reins.

Doing an Injury puts you below your Enemy; Revenging one makes you even with him; Forgiving it sets you above him.

A man in a Passion rides a mad Horse.

Pride is as loud a Beggar as Want, and a great deal more saucy.

Pay what you owe, and what you're worth you'll know.

He that spills the Rum loses that only; He that drinks it, often loses that and himself.

Not to oversee Workmen is to leave them your Purse open.

Nice Eaters seldom meet with a good dinner.

Great Estates may venture more; Little Boats must keep near shore.

The Wise and Brave dares own that he was wrong.

A Brother may not be a Friend, but a Friend will always be a Brother.

An ill Wound, but not an ill Name, may be healed.

God, Parents, and Instructors can never be requited.

Love your Neighbor; yet don't pull down your Hedge.

Laws too gentle are seldom obeyed; too severe, seldom executed.

Silence is not always a Sign of Wisdom, but Babbling is ever a Folly.

Great Modesty often hides great Merit.

Virtue may always make a Face handsome, but Vice will certain make it ugly.

To serve the Public faithfully, and at the same time please it entirely is impracticable.

Let no pleasure tempt thee, no profit allure thee, no ambition corrupt thee, no example sway thee, no persuasion move thee to do anything which thou knowest to be evil; so shalt thou always live jollily: for a good conscience is a continual Christmas.

THE GOOD OLD TIMES.

"THE good old times. And the old times *were* good, my dear; much better than the times that you live in. I know I am an old fogy, Nelly," said Ephraim Batterby, "I am a man of the past. My assured opinion is that it was superior in its way, its life, and its people."

Presently Ephraim rose abruptly, and said, with a smile,

"It is time to go to bed. I must be up very early to-morrow morning. I have a huge cargo of wheat in from Chicago, and I must arrange to have it shipped for Liverpool."

After he had crept beneath the blankets, Ephraim's thoughts wandered back through the spent years and, as the happiness he had known came freshly and strongly into his mind, he felt drawn more and more toward it, until the new and old mingled together in strange but placid confusion in his brain, and he fell asleep.

When he awoke it was still dark, for the winter was just begun; but he heard—or did he only dream that he heard?—a clock in some neighboring steeple strike six. Flinging the covering aside, he leaped to the floor. He fell, and hurt his arm somewhat. Strange that he should have miscalculated the distance. The bed seemed more than twice as high from the floor as it should be. It was too dark to see distinctly, so he crept to the bed with extended hands, and felt it. Yes, it was at least four feet from the floor, and, very oddly, it had long slim posts, such as bedsteads used to have.

Ephraim resolved to strike a light. He groped his way to the table and tried to find the matchbox. It was not there; he could not discover it upon the bureau. But he found something else, which he did not recognize at first, but which a more careful examination with his fingers told him was a flint and steel. He was vexed that any one should play such a trick upon him. How could he ever succeed in lighting the gas with a flint and steel?

But he resolved to try, and he moved over toward the gas-bracket by the bureau. It was not there. He passed his cold hand over a square yard of the wall where the bracket used to be but it had vanished.

Perplexed and angry, Ephraim was about to replace the flint and steel upon the bureau, and to dress in the dark, when his hand encountered a candlestick. It contained a candle. He determined to try to light it. He struck the flint

upon the steel at least a dozen times before he succeeded.

It was only a poor, slim, tallow candle, and Ephraim thought the light not much better than the darkness. He was conscious that the room was chill and, for fear he should catch cold, he thought he would open the register and let in some warm air. The register had disappeared. There, right before him, was a vast, old-fashioned fireplace filled with wood.

"I always did like an open wood fire," he said, "and now I will have a roaring one."

So he touched the flame of the candle to the light kindling wood, and in a moment it was afire.

"I will wash while it is burning up," said Ephraim.

He went to the place where he thought he should find the fixed wash-stand, with hot and cold water running from the pipes, but he was amazed to find that it had followed the strange fashion of the room, and had gone also. There was an old hand-basin, with a cracked pitcher, standing on a movable wash-stand, but the water in the pitcher had been turned to ice.

Ephraim placed the pitcher between the andirons, close to the wood in the chimney-place, and he did so with smarting eyes, for the flue was cold, and volumes of smoke were pouring out into the room.

When the ice in the pitcher was thawed, he finished his toilet, and descended the stairs. As nobody seemed to be moving in the house, he resolved to get his breakfast at a restaurant.

The force of habit, rather than a very defined purpose, led him to walk to the corner of the street, and to pause there as usual to wait the coming of the horse-car. Following a custom, too, he took from his waistcoat pocket, two or three pennies (which, to his surprise, had swollen to the uncomfortable dimensions of the old copper cents) and looked around for the newsboy from whom he bought, every morning, the daily paper.

While he waited a man passed by, dressed in knee-breeches and a very old-fashioned coat and hat. Ephraim said to him politely,—

"Can you tell me, sir, where I can get a morning paper? The lad I buy from is not at his post this morning."

The stranger looked at Ephraim with a queer expression, and presently said,—

"I don't think I understand you; a morning paper did you say?"

"Yes, one of the morning papers; the *Argus* or *Commercial*,—any of them."

"Why, my dear sir, there is but one newspaper published in this city. It is the *Gazette*. It comes out on Saturday; and this you know, is only Tuesday."

"Do you mean to say that we have no daily papers?" exclaimed Ephraim.

"Daily papers! Papers published every day! Why, sir, there is not such a newspaper in the world, and there never will be."

"The man is cracked," said Ephraim, looking after him. "No daily papers. The fellow has just come from the interior of Africa or else he is an escaped lunatic. It is very queer that car does not come. Too bad that I should have lost so much time. I shall walk down."

But, as Ephraim stepped into the highway, he was surprised to find there were no rails. The cobble stone pavement was unbroken.

"Well, upon my word. What on earth has become of the street-cars? I must go afoot, I suppose, if the distance is great."

And Ephraim pressed on with a determination to seek his favorite restaurant, for he began to feel very hungry. In a little while he reached the corner where the restaurant should have been, but, to his vexation, he saw that the building there was a coffee house of mean appearance, in front of which swung a blurred and faded sign.

He resolved to enter, for he could get a breakfast here, at least. He pushed through the low doorway and over the sanded floor into a narrow sort of box, where a table was spread.

As he took his seat a waiter approached him.

"Give me a bill of fare," said Ephraim.

"Bill of fare, sir? Have no bill of fare. Never have them; no coffee house has them, sir. Get you up a nice breakfast, though, sir."

"What have you got?"

"Ham, steak, boiled eggs, coffee, tea, muffins, sir."

"Bring me a broiled steak, an egg, and some muffins and coffee, and bring them quickly."

"Yes, sir; half a minute, sir."

When this came in upon the tray, carried by the brisk waiter, it looked dainty and tempting enough, and the fumes that rose from it were so savory that he grew into a better humor. As it was spead before him, he saw the waiter had given him a very coarse, two-pronged steel fork.

"Take that away," said Ephraim, tossing it to the end of the table; "I want a silver fork."

"Silver fork, sir. Bless my soul. We haven't got any; never heard of such a thing."

"Get out," said Ephraim savagely. He was becoming somewhat annoyed and bewildered by the utter disappearance of so many familiar things.

At the conclusion of the meal, Ephraim walked rapidly to his office. As he opened the door, he

expected to find his letters in the box wherein the postman thrust them twice or thrice a day. They were not there. The box itself was gone.

"Too bad," said Ephraim. "Everything conspires to delay me to-day. I suppose I must sit here and wait for that lazy letter-carrier to come, and meantime my business must wait, too."

We have not space to give in detail the various awkward misapprehensions of our Old Fogy on that awkward day. He found that letter-carrier and letter-box had alike vanished, and at the shrunken post office he learned that there would be no mail till the next day, and that they had never heard of such a place as Chicago. When he began to talk of telegraphing, and informed his hearers that he wished to get the quotations of the London Stock Exchange for that morning, he was taken for a madman. His talk about steamers and steam fire-engines failed to improve the opinion as to his sanity. And when at the wharf he talked about receiving a cargo of wheat by rail, and of loading twenty thousand bushels that day, and that on an iron vessel, the people around showed decided symptoms of locking him up as a lunatic. Talk about photographs, hard coal, Pacific railroads, etc., did not add to his reputation for sanity and he finally fled for safety, not knowing what terrors might be preparing for him.

"I know," he said, "what it all means. This is the past. Some mighty hand has swept away the barrier of years, and plunged me once more into the midst of the life that I knew in my youth, long ago. And I have loved and worshiped that past. Blind and foolish man! I loved it. Ah, I hate it now! What a miserable, miserable time it was. How poor and insufficient life seems under its conditions. How meanly men crawled about, content with their littleness and folly, and unconscious of the wisdom that lay within their reach, ignorant of the vast and wonderful possibilities that human ingenuity might compass."

He knew nothing more until he realized that there was a gentle knocking near to him, as of some one who demanded admittance at the door. He roused himself with an effort, and almost mechanically said, "Come in."

He heard a light step, and opened his eyes. He was in his own bedroom, the room of the present, not of the past, and in his own bed. It was Nelly who knocked at the door; she stood beside him.

"It is time to get up, grandpa," she said.

"Wh–where am I? What has happened?" Then as his mind realized the truth, he said, "Oh, Nelly, how I have suffered.

"Let me tell you not to believe what I told you about the glories of the past; it was not true, my child, not true. I have learned better; I talked to you like a foolish old man. Thank God, my dear, that you live late in the world's history. No man is more unwise or more ungrateful than he who finds delight in playing the part of an Old Fogy."—*Charles Heber Clark.**

* Half Hours with the Best American Authors.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

Holiday Publications.

From The Chautauqua-Century Press comes "The Four Georges,"* by William Makepeace Thackeray. These charming pictures of English life in the eighteenth century have been given a new setting in the form of a sumptuous holiday gift book. Mr. George Wharton Edwards, one of the foremost of American artists, has embellished the text with characteristic decorations, portraits, and vignettes, which have been reproduced in photogravure. The volume has all the points of a most attractive gift book in the rich binding and handsome letter press.——The "Log of a Japanese Journey,"† a translation of a well-known Japanese classic, is especially interesting as showing the unique way in which the people of those eastern islands express their emotions, whether of joy or of sorrow. In the description of the journey from a remote provincial town to the capital even the delays and accidents are occasions for the composition of stanzas, many of which rival western poetry in their beauty of thought. The translation has been made with a carefulness that has preserved the delicate touches of humor, while the illustrations, drawn by a native artist, give to the little volume a cast altogether pleasing.—— One of the newest books* is by Dr. William F. Warren, president of the Boston University. This simple tale is beautiful and inspiring. It describes the struggle of a refined young German for the true ideal of life. He seeks it in learning, he gropes for it in the monastery, he strives to grasp it while he rides over the hills of Palestine; finally it dawns upon him as he lies ill in the humble cottage of a missionary high up in

* The Four Georges. Holiday Edition. By William Makepeace Thackeray. Illustrations by George Wharton Edwards. Price, $3.00. † Log of a Japanese Journey. Translated from the Japanese by Mrs. Flora Best Harris. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent. Price, 50 cts.

* The Story of Gottlieb. By Dr. W. F. Warren. Meadville, Pa., Flood & Vincent. Price, 60 cts.

the Lebanon mountains. The pages are full of the great truths of life and love and there is no word of weakness in them. It is a good book for teachers and parents who are looking for wholesome reading to put into the hands of scholars and children.——An analytical study of the character and work of Columbus is made in a recent book* by Justin Winsor. The microscope of critical research is turned upon the few records left by Columbus himself, upon the more copious records made by others about him, on the contemporary life of his times, and on the historical developments down to the present. All the revelations thus made are philosophically considered, balanced one against another, with the aim of restoring by the whole process the true likeness of the world's great discoverer. It is questionable whether the author has succeeded. His book is a masterful one, but the reader feels a doubt whether full justice has been done to Columbus, as represented by him. The book is a fine one in its external appearance, and contains many illustrations, maps, charts, and facsimiles of Columbus' writings.——An interesting book of travels and national studies made in that strange old part of the world which is comparatively so new to the knowledge of men outside of its borders, the Chinese Empire, is "The Land of the Lamas."† The country is considered geographically, historically, and ethnographically. The agreeable literary style of the author and the fine mechanical work of the publishers make the book a pleasing one both to the mind and the eye.——Camp life out on the Western plains is made to serve as a most effective background for a sketch of General Crook and his Indian work.‡ The pleasures and perils, the necessity, the usefulness, the discouragements of such life are all reviewed by one long trained in the calling of a soldier, who brings to the work a comprehensive intelligence which readily grasps situations and sees solutions. An appreciative and thoroughly interesting biography of "the greatest Indian fighter and manager the army of the United States ever had," is the result of these characteristics of the writer.——A book of antique appearance is the volume containing three of Oliver Wendell Holmes' poems,‖ "The One Hoss Shay," "How the Old Horse Won the Bet," and "The Broomstick Train." With its heavy buckskin covers curiously marked, its quaint pictures, fine paper, and good print, it forms a most desirable gift book.——A beautiful, thoughtful book, brimming over with desirable knowledge has for its theme the fine arts of architecture, sculpture, and painting.* It is not distinctively historical nor technical, but brightly touches the most suitable phases of the subject. It stirs up imagination and awakens suggestions that are not expressed in its pages. Crisp and easy, the style is that of a cultured speaker who has mastered the art of addressing a body of students who listen only to what interests them. The book belongs to the series of University Extension Manuals edited by Professor Wm. Knight.——The treasures of poets and painters were ransacked for the choicest available productions concerning birds in order to form the attractive combination book called "With the Birds."† It is one of the most pleasing among the holiday publications.

The Young People.

New editions of "Our Christmas in a Palace,"‡ and its sequel, "Christmas in Narragansett," by Edward Everett Hale have appeared in serviceable binding for everyday use. The author's name will suffice to commend them to the reading public. Both books are charming combinations of a long story interwoven with short stories. In both, points and morals bubble up through a sea of joviality, humor, and ingenuity, and both are inspired with the true Christmas spirit.——In his book "Studies in Young Life,"‖ Bishop Vincent shows rare skill in the discernment and portrayal of human nature in its multiform phases. The different types are displayed in plain, old-fashioned language, and are strikingly true to life. The sketches are short and compact, each one breathing a message of helpfulness.——Boys will rejoice in a thrilling historical war story of a hero of our navy, which is more exciting than any mere fiction. It is an account of the services of Midshipman Paulding,⁋ aged thirteen years, in the victory on Lake

*Christopher Columbus. By Justin Winsor. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company. Price, $4.

†The Land of the Lamas. By William Woodville Rockhill. With Maps and Illustrations. New York: The Century Co. Price, $3.50.

‡On the Border with Crook. By John G. Bourke, Captain Third Cavalry, U. S. A. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Price, $3.50.

‖The One Hoss Shay. By Oliver Wendell Holmes. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

*The Fine Arts. By G. Baldwin Brown. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Price, $1.00.

†With the Birds. Boston: D. Lothrop Company. Price, $1.50.

‡Our Christmas in a Palace. Christmas in Narragansett. By Edward Everett Hale. Price of each, $1.00.

‖Studies in Young Life: A Series of Word-Pictures and Practical Papers. By Bishop John H. Vincent. New York: Funk & Wagnalls.

⁋Midshipman Paulding. By Molly Elliot Seawell. With Illustrations. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

Champlain, 1814, for which Congress gave him a vote of thanks. In scene, time, and fact the account tallies perfectly with history.——A book entitled "Una and Leo, or Changes and Chances,"* tells the queer pranks of fate with twin orphans, a girl and a boy.——A very pleasing pastime is furnished by "Nurse Heatherdale's Story."† It is an English tale of good tone. The children are, on an average, charming, and contend with the usual ups and downs of childhood.——"The Jo-Boat Boys"‡ is a highly entertaining story consisting of a series of instructive "drives" arrayed in most attractive chapters. Waif life and river hovels are described with a truth and vividness that need only hunger and rags for a full realization of the reality. ——A touching story in which it is shown how noble character is developed in the midst of hard trials, when there is a purpose to stand true to the right, is "Led in Unknown Paths."‖ ——"The Boy Settlers"§ is a story laid in the then wild west during the excitement of the Kansas-Nebraska struggle. It rings with patriotism, faithfully portrays the rough life of the times, and teaches in an effective manner sturdy lessons of moral worth.——An ideal large print story book for children is called "Marjorie and her Papa; How They Wrote a Story and Made Pictures for It."¶ The characters are real and the whole story a most natural likeness of actual life, with illustrations to match the text. The book will be a great favorite.——The beautiful book entitled "Lady Jane"** is elegant in tone and diction and generous in sentiment. It is especially commendable for the winning way in which it presents good breeding and nobleness of character. The story is thoroughly interesting, but inclined to be sad, its pathos predominating over its humor.——A compilation of beautiful things written by the best poets for and about children forms the Christmas book called "Child Classics."†† The illustrations are finely colored reproductions of masterpieces of art.——Another compilation of interest and beauty is "Song Stories for Little People."*——A new illustrated book beaming with vivacity and happiness is called "Stories in Rhyme for Holiday Time."† ——Two English girls,‡ charmingly unremarkable for anything in particular, who possess all the virtues in moderation and enjoy the distinction of not being in their own country, study art in Italy, and have considerable amusement and vexation in their love affairs. The story is exceedingly sweet and tender; it floats lightly along, never dragging; the descriptions are short but active and quickly bring out bright pictures, and the pure tone of the story makes its perusal a pleasant pastime.——An active, decisive, and very imprudent young lady, whom a melancholy combination of circumstances has allowed to grow up with a mind of her own, conceives the idea of having a great ambition,—to become an artist. The story‖ in which she figures as principal character is very satisfactory. The saucy and clever people say and do cleverly saucy things, the saints are perfection, the butterflies gay and heartless, or approximately so. Reward and retribution emanate from their respective causes with enough current and volume to bear one swiftly along through the pages.—— The final suppression of negro slavery locates in time the charming story of "The Haydocks' Testimony."§ Great quaintness and interest are involved in the narration, the scene of which is posited in the far South. Its lesson of peace will commend it.

Miscellaneous.

A valuable new work in the line of encyclopedias is that devoted to missions.¶ The entire organized mission work is presented in its pages under a general plan including the origin and growth of missionary societies at home, and accounts of the countries in which the work is carried on; the latter division includes history and description of the people and of the religious beliefs already held by them. Among the several accessories to these

*Una and Leo. By Julia Goodfellow. New York: Hunt & Eaton. Cincinnati: Cranston & Stowe. Price, $1.00.

†Nurse Heatherdale's Story. By Mrs. Molesworth. Illustrated. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. Price, $1.25.

‡The Jo-Boat Boys. By the Rev. J. F. Cowan. Illustrated. Price, $1.50. ‖Led in Unknown Paths. By Anna F. Raffensperger. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. Price, $1.25.

§The Boy Settlers. By Noah Brooks. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Price, $1.25.

¶Marjorie and Her Papa. By Robert Howe Fletcher. Price, $1.00. **Lady Jane. By Mrs. C. V. Jamison. Price, $1.50. New York: The Century Co.

††Child Classics. Compiled by Mary R. Fitch. Boston: D. Lothrop Company. Price, $1.50.

*Song Stories for Little People. Edited by W. H. Luckenbach, D.D. Price, $1.00. †Stories in Rhyme for Holiday Time. By Edward Jewitt Wheeler. New York: Funk & Wagnalls. Price, $1.75.

‡Two English Girls. By Mabel Hart. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. Price, 50 cts.

‖Her Great Ambition. By Anne Richardson Earle. Boston: Roberts Brothers. Price, $1.00.

§The Haydocks' Testimony. By L. C. W. Published by request of the Christian Arbitration and Peace Society. Philadelphia: 310 Chestnut Street.

¶The Encyclopædia of Missions. Edited by the Rev. Edwin Munsell Bliss. New York: Funk & Wagnalls. Price, $12.00.

two departments are a gazetteer of mission stations, biographical sketches of missionaries, and numerous good maps. Though requiring two large volumes the work is necessarily condensed in style so great is the subject to be treated; but in all parts it is complete, clear, and well presented.——Volume VII. of the new edition of Chambers's Encyclopædia* covers the topics whose names are included between the words *Maltburn* and *Pearson*. The whole work is one of the most satisfactory of reference books, especially for those who simply want clear explanations and not exhaustive treatises.——A very successful book* of its kind appears with all the attractions of twenty beautiful pictures in half-tone and one hundred pen and ink drawings. Gesture and pantomimic action are the topics so well treated, including implicit directions for the various movements of the body. Ornamental and instructive, it is adapted to interest either casual or studious readers.

*Chambers's Encyclopædia. Vol. VII. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. Price per vol., $3.00.

*Gesture and Pantomimic Action. By Florence A. Fowle Adams. New York: Edgar S. Werner. Price, $2.50.

SUMMARY OF IMPORTANT NEWS FOR OCTOBER, 1891.

HOME NEWS.—October 1. Formal opening of the Southern Interstate Exposition at Raleigh, N. C.

October 2. Three feet of snow in Montana.

October 3. Opening in Harrisburg, Pa., of the thirty-fourth annual convention of the National Local Preachers' Association.

October 4. Destructive forest fires in Eldorado County, California.

October 5. The Chilian Steamer *Itata* released on bonds by local capitalists, leaves San Diego for Valparaiso.

October 6. $50,000 fire at Yale University.

October 7. Formal opening of the library building given by Henry W. Sage to Cornell University.——The Methodist Ecumenical Council opens in Washington, D. C.

October 10. The World's Fair directors ask the city of Chicago for $1,000,000.

October 12. Meeting of the American Board of Commissioners of Foreign Missions at Pittsfield, Mass.

October 14. Consecration of Phillips Brooks as Bishop of Massachusetts.——Earthquake at San Francisco.

October 15. Dr. Storrs re-elected president of the American Board of Commissioners of Foreign Missions.

October 16. Poisoning of nearly one hundred W. C. T. U. delegates at a banquet at Bradford, Pa., some seriously.——Attack on the United States sailors of the cruiser *Baltimore* by Chilian sailors at Valparaiso.

October 17. Addresses before the Methodist Ecumenical Council by President Harrison and Secretaries Foster and Noble. —— Death of James Parton.

October 18. Dedication of the Beecher Memorial Congregational Church of Brooklyn, N. Y.

October 21. Official notice received in Washington of the admission hereafter of American pork into Italy.

October 27. Minister Egan instructed by the State Department to demand reparation of Chili.

FOREIGN NEWS.—October 1. Opening of the Liberal Federation Congress at Newcastle, England.

October 3. The freedom of the city of Newcastle conferred on Mr. Gladstone.

October 4. Death of the Earl of Portsmouth. ——Millions of seals reported on Bering Islands.

October 6. Death of W. H. Smith, government leader in the House of Commons.——Death of the King of Wurtemberg.

October 7. Death of Charles Stewart Parnell.

October 10. The Bundesrath of Germany oppose the emperor's liquor bill.

October 12. A revolt and an attempt to assassinate the president, at Montevideo, Uruguay.

October 15. Death of Count von Arco-Valley, German Minister to the U. S.——Opening of the French Senate and Chamber of Deputies.

October 17. Mr. Balfour succeeds the late W. H. Smith as First Lord of the Treasury.——Switzerland adopts a new tariff.

October 19. The Chilian government recognizes the right of asylum.

October 21. Sweeping victory for the Liberals at the Chilian elections.

October 22. Revolt in Paraguay suppressed by government troops.——Great damage done by floods in Great Britain, France, and Germany.

October 23. Wm. L. Jackson suceeds Mr. Balfour as Chief Secretary for Ireland.——Mr. Gladstone revises his Home Rule bill.

October 27. Austria and Italy sign the Zollverein with Germany.